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THE

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From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive,*

M,DCCC.

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>
> CICERO *de Fin.*

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ERRATA in Vol. XXXIII.

Page 11. l. 14. put a comma after 'Scio.'
40. l. 8. from bott. for 'persue,' r. *peruse*.
45. l. 16. put an inverted quotation comma after books.'
56. l. 6. for 'George,' r. *Robert*.
112. l. 17. for 'were,' r. *was*.
183. l. 5. from bott. for '*quea*,' r. *que a*.
l. 4. from bott. for '*consiste*,' r. *consistent*.
l. 3. from bott. for '*idees*,' r. *idées*.
207. l. 20. dele *a* after '*If*.'
211. l. 7. from bott. for 'weigh well,' r. *to weigh*.
242. l. 12. for 'important,' r. *trivial*.
371. l. 31. for 'persons had,' r. *it may have*.
32. for 'may have,' r. *persons had*.
423. l. 4. after 'with,' insert *an*.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1800.

Art. I. *A Voyage performed by the late Earl of Sandwich round the Mediterranean*, in the Years 1738 and 1739. Written by Himself. Embellished with a Portrait of his Lordship, and illustrated with several Engravings of antient Buildings and Inscriptions, with a Chart of his Course. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of the Noble Author's Life, by John Cooke, M. A. Chaplain to his Lordship. 4to. pp. 580. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

When the intention of giving to the public an account of this voyage was announced, the intelligence was not received with indifference; and indeed, the great abilities, the strength and originality of character, and the powers of entertainment, which the late Earl of Sandwich was known to possess, could not fail to excite for this work a more than common degree of curiosity and expectation. Though it must have been remembered that, when this voyage was performed, the author had scarcely arrived at the age of manhood, and was wholly unschooled in the world; yet, as the experienced mind, penetrating and deeply versed in the knowlege of human nature, must be formed from superior youthful powers of attainment, it would naturally be imagined that the defects arising from inexperience would be materially compensated by that entertainment, which a vigorous fancy is of itself capable of affording. Our account of the work will perhaps shew how far these ideas were well founded.

The volume is dedicated by the editor to the King; and then follow the memoirs of the author's life. We expected an account of the circumstances which prevented the Earl from publishing this voyage; and also of those which, after a lapse of sixty years, have now occasioned its appearance: but for this information we looked in vain. The 'Memoirs of the noble author's life' are almost wholly confined to accounts of a public nature, principally of entrances into and departures from office, with remarks on official transactions, interspersed occasionally

sionally with declamation against the Earl's political opponents. We have seldom perused memoirs more barren of anecdote and amusement; and, considering the object of them, we were therefore not a little disappointed in this respect. Indeed there seems to have been a considerable degree of ingenuity, or at least of contrivance, exerted in order to render them so uninteresting. They are elaborately dull;—We shall offer to our readers a short abstract of such information as we find in them.

John Montague, son of Edward Richard Montague Lord Viscount Hinchingbrook, and Elizabeth only daughter of Alexander Popham, Esq. of Littlecote in the county of Wilts, was born in the parish of St. Martin in the Fields, Middlesex, November 3d, 1718. He was sent at an early age to Eton school; where, under the tuition of Dr. George, he made a considerable proficiency in the classics. The editor observes that a 'prominent feature, which at this time marked his character, was the reverence which he paid to authority, with entire submission to the discipline of the school;' and an instance of this is related, that happened but the day before he was to leave Eton, and after he had become Earl of Sandwich.

> 'In 1735, he was admitted in Trinity College, Cambridge. During his residence in this seat of learning, he and the late Lord Halifax were particularly distinguished for their college exercises; and were the first noblemen who declaimed publickly in the college chapel. After spending about two years in college, he set out on the voyage which is the subject of this volume. Mr. Ponsonby late Earl of Besborough, Mr. Nelthorpe, and Mr. Mackye, accompanied his lordship on this agreeable tour, with a Mr. Liobard a painter.'

On his return to England in 1739, he brought with him, as appears by a letter written by him to the Rev. Dr. Dampier, "two mummies and eight embalmed ibiss's from the catacombs of Memphis; a large quantity of the famous Egyptian papyrus; fifteen intaglios; five hundred medals, most of them easier to be read than that which has the inscription ΓΑΜΙΩΝ: a marble vase from Athens, and a very long inscription as yet undecyphered, on both sides of a piece of marble of about two feet in height." This marble was afterward presented to Trinity College, and the inscription has been explained by the late learned Dr. Taylor.

Being now of age, he took his seat in the House of Lords, and in the same year was chosen High Steward of the corporation of Huntingdon. The manner in which his marriage is noticed sufficiently marks that it was not intended to introduce much of a private nature into these memoirs. 'It may not be improper,' says the editor, 'to mention in this place a domestic occurrence. March 14th, 1740-1 he received the hand of the

Hon. Dorothy Fane, third daughter of Lord Viscount Fane of the kingdom of Ireland.'

The Earl began his political career by joining the party then in opposition to Sir Robert Walpole. On the formation of the ministry distinguished by the appellation of *Broad-Bottom*, he became a member of the administration, and was appointed second Lord of the Admiralty, December 15th, 1744. In consequence of the active part which he took in raising men to oppose the pretender in the rebellion of 1745, he obtained rank in the army. In August, 1746, he was appointed plenipotentiary to the congress to be holden at Breda; and in the next year his powers were renewed, and continued till the definitive treaty of peace was signed at Aix la Chapelle in October 1748. On his return, he was sworn of the privy council, and appointed first Lord of the Admiralty; and on the King's embarking for Hanover, he was declared one of the Lords Justices during his Majesty's absence. In June 1751, he was displaced from the Admiralty, and did not again hold any public office till the year 1755, when he became one of the joint Vice Treasurers of Ireland. In April 1763, he was again appointed to the Admiralty, as first Lord; and the death of Lord Hardwicke causing a vacancy in the office of High Steward of the University of Cambridge, Lord Sandwich became a candidate to succeed him, but failed, after a very close contest. In 1765 he was again out of office, but in 1768 was made joint Post Master General with Lord Le Despencer. In January 1771, under Lord North's administration, he was again appointed first Lord of the Admiralty, which post he held above eleven years.—The memoirs give also a list of honours, less public, conferred at different times on the noble Earl. He was an elder brother of the Trinity House, a Governor of the Charter House, of Christ's Hospital, of the London Hospital, &c. &c. —Of his official conduct, the part which relates to the Admiralty appears to be of the most importance, and also that which redounded most to his credit. He reformed great abuses in the dock-yards; increased the establishment of the marines; set the example of annual visitations to the dock-yards; was the promoter and patron of several voyages on discovery; and it may, we believe, with truth be added that his attention to and knowlege of the duties of that department have never been exceeded.

The events of the American war occasioning a removal of the ministry in March 1782, Lord Sandwich afterward held no active employment under government, during the remainder of his life. We shall give an extract from his character as a peer

of

of parliament, which, the editor informs us, has been 'obligingly furnished, drawn by the hand of an able master.'

'The Earl of Sandwich was rather to be considered as an able and an intelligent speaker, than a brilliant and eloquent orator. In his early parliamentary career, he displayed uncommon knowledge of the sort of composition adapted to make an impression on a popular assembly; and from a happy choice of words, and a judicious arrangement of his argument, he seldom spoke without producing a sensible effect on the mind of every impartial auditor. In the latter part of his political life, and especially during the American war, his harangues were less remarkable for their grace and ornament, than for sound sense, and the valuable and appropriate information which they communicated. His speeches therefore were regarded as the lessons of experience and wisdom.'—

'Whenever he rose, the House was assured that he had something material to communicate: he was accordingly listened to with attention, and seldom sat down without furnishing their Lordships with facts at once important and interesting; of which no other peer was so perfectly master as himself.'—

Concerning the private character of the Earl, the editor has borne testimony in general terms to the easy politeness and the affability of his manners; to his cheerfulness and hospitality; to the activity of his disposition; and to his readiness to perform acts of kindness.—A description is given of his musical pursuits, which were followed with uncommon eagerness and constancy; principally at his own seat. 'I do not believe,' says the editor, that 'there ever was an instance, either before or since, of six oratorios being performed for six successive nights by the same band.'—'Every oratorio which was performed in the evening, was rehearsed throughout in the morning. After dinner, catches and glees went round with a spirit and effect never felt before, till every body was summoned by a signal to the opening of the performance. This lasted till supper was on the table, after which catches and glees were renewed with the same hilarity as in the earlier part of the day.'

We do not recollect how long Orpheus played, before Pluto was content that he should depart: but we doubt whether his performance 'extended throughout the week.' We are here told that the accounts of the bodily fatigue suffered by the greater part of the band would hardly be believed, if many persons still living could not bear testimony to their truth.—'These meetings were continued for several years, with unrivalled splendour and festivity.'

The Earl lived 'in the calm satisfaction of a private station,' little more than seven years. In the autumn of 1791, a complaint in the bowels, to which he had been subject, 'became more than usually troublesome.' He went to Bath, to try the efficacy of the waters: but, receiving no benefit, he returned to his house in town in the latter end of February 1792. 'He was not sensible of his danger till within a few days before his death, when some very alarming symptoms convinced his mind, not yet impaired, that his recovery was no longer to be hoped for. He received the intimation with firmness. During even the last stages of his illness, he frequently conversed on public affairs, with the same reach of thought and perspicuity of expression as he had at any time been accustomed to do.'—'After languishing a few days, he expired on the 30th of April, 1792, with perfect composure and resignation.'

Such is the substance of the particulars most worthy of notice in the memoirs. The information which they have supplied we do not slight: but more might reasonably have been expected in forty quarto pages, employed on the life of a person who was distinguished in so many respects, who was so much in the world, whose disposition was so convivial, and whose resolute habits of application left no hours to indolence, but devoted every one to business or to pleasure.

The narrative of the voyage begins at Leghorn; where the noble author embarked on board an English ship called the Anne, of about 300 tons, and mounting 16 guns, on the 12th of July N. S. 1738. He gives a description of the port of Leghorn, and of the navigation along the coast of Italy. We are informed that a tower built on a small sandy island, called the Malhora, in the outer road of Leghorn, 'was erected on a message sent to the Grand Duke by Queen Anne; who upon the Restoration, (an English seventy gun ship being lost there,) let him know, that if he would not, she would send and build a sea-mark there herself.'—A short description and history both of Corsica and Sardinia also occur; the ship having been in sight of these islands, though she did not touch at either.

It may be proper to remark that no mention is made of the persons who accompanied the Earl; the narrative beginning, '*I* embarked from Leghorn,' &c: but this omission appears to have been the effect of inadvertence, as at times the plural is used, 'our curiosity,'—'We went,' &c. The reader is under obligations to the editor for information on this head.

At Messina the ship anchored. Here they 'had the malicious pleasure to see the Spaniards still fishing up the cannon and remains of those ships that were destroyed in this port by Admiral Byng.' A short and well compressed history of the island of Sicily follows; with equally brief descriptions of the cities of Palermo, Messina, Augusta, Catanea, Syracusa, Gergento, and Trapani: but it does not appear whether these cities were all visited by the author. In every description, the events of old times are recapitulated, and illustrated by copious quotations from the writings of antiquity. The travellers went to see the famous cavern called the Ear of Dionysius; the account of which, as here given, differs in some respects from those of other travellers:

> 'It is a large cavern, (says Lord S.) cut horizontally into a rock; 72 feet high, 27 broad, and 219 in depth: the entrance is of the shape of an ass's ear, and the inside somewhat of the form of the letter S. On the top of the cave, there is a groove, which runs from one end to the other, and has communication with a small room at the entrance, now inaccessible by reason of the height and steepness of the rock. This is imagined to have been a guard room where the tyrant used to place a sentinel, who by hearing every the least whisper of the prisoners within, made his report accordingly to his masters.' —'The effects of the reverberation are so surprising, that people would be apt to think that those, who related them, were giving into a vice, of which all travellers are generally suspected guilty.'

Mr. Brydone assigns to the cave the exact form of the human ear, and gives larger dimensions than Lord S.: but, as he uses round numbers, our belief inclines most to the admeasurement before us. Some among later travellers deny the existence of any other than a rude or fancied resemblance in the cave to the structure of the ear, and deride the idea of such a design in its original formation. Lord Sandwich has supposed this cavern to be the '*Latumiæ Syracusanæ*' noticed by Cicero: but most other travellers agree that the immense cavern which has been converted to a subterranean garden, and belongs to the convent of the Capuchins, was the *Latumiæ* to which Cicero alluded. This subterranean garden is not noticed by the Earl. Brydone, in his description, believes it to have been the quarry whence the materials for building the city of Syracuse were principally taken.

Lord S. and his companions, having departed from Sicily, sailed towards Athens; and his Lordship has given classical and historical descriptions of the islands and head-lands in his course. A strong wind having obliged them to stop for shelter at the island of Milo, we are informed that the inhabitants of this very fertile island are kept poor by the great taxes laid on them by the Turks: that 'near the sea-shore is a hot spring rising up several yards from the land, which though it is surrounded by cold water, preserves a heat strong enough to boil an egg;'—that 'the dress of the women of this country is very particular; their petticoats coming no lower than their knees, in order to show (what with them is reckoned the greatest perfection) their thick legs. This is a fashion so much in vogue among them, that it is a common thing to see them with seven or eight pair of stockings on, besides bandages round the small of the leg.'

At the island Ægina, also, the travellers stopped. Some ruins of no great consequence are here noticed: but the most extraordinary circumstance related of this place is the prodigious multitude of partridges, which swarm in such incredible numbers, that the people are obliged to go out every year purposely to break their eggs; fearing that, by devouring their corn, the birds should produce a famine.

Twelve hours after having left the island Ægina, they came to an anchor in the Piræum, 'now called Porto Leone, from a large lion of white marble that stood near it, which some years ago was carried away by the Venetians.'

When they arrived, we are not told; and the journal is often deficient in dates. The noble author has described the ports of the Piræum, Munychia, and Phalerus, and the most remarkable of the ruins in and near Athens: but so many descriptions and drawings of these remains of antiquity, the labours of diligent and scientific travellers, are already in the possession of the public, that we shall limit our notice of this part of the work to a few general remarks, and direct our attention principally to such matter as is more nearly connected with our own times. The Earl's descriptions may be consulted with advantage, by those who wish to examine and judge of the disagreements between the accounts of other travellers. He coincides with Le Roy in opinion that the stately ruins, commonly supposed to be the remains of a palace built by Adrian, but by Mr. Stuart conjectured to have been the Temple of Jupiter Olympius, are the remains of the Pantheon built by Adrian.

The travellers visited Megara, now only a village, but which still retains its antient name. The island of Salamis (now Colouri) was also visited. The inhabitants are Greeks. The author relates that, at a village called Ambelachi, 'near which are many ruins, heaps of broken columns, and inscriptions in abundance, we ordered the public crier to make proclamation that all such as had any ancient medals, should bring them to the house of the chief man of the place; where, for all such as were approved of, they should receive a *para*, which is about three farthings. It was not long before we had great quantities brought in, so that we collected about fifty, some of which were of value.'—'The air on this island is esteemed very wholesome, a proof of which we were eye-witnesses of in two old men, the one, who had passed his 110th, the other his 115th year, both of them enjoying their senses and limbs still perfect.'—Little is said of the modern state of Athens. Of thirteen hundred houses, one thousand were inhabited by Greeks, and the remaining three hundred by Turks. The citadel was defended by a few cannon, and a Turkish garrison of about three hundred men. This seems to agree with Mr. Stuart's computation, that the number of inhabitants, when he was at Athens, amounted to between nine and ten thousand.

In the passage from Athens to Constantinople, the ship anchored at the island of Mycone, where she was detained ten days by a violent northerly wind. During this time, an expedition was undertaken in the long boat to Delos; where the voyagers saw the ruins of the Temple of Apollo, of which there remained 'nothing but a confused mass of broken columns, cornices, and architraves, and part of the colossal statue of the deity to whom the temple was dedicated, which wants legs and head; and at a small distance, a large plinth, that in all probability served as the basis of the statue, which we learn from the inscription was erected by the people of Naxos.' The ruins of the antient city of Delos entirely covered all this part of the island, rendering it incapable of cultivation.

They stopped also at other islands of the Archipelago. Of the celebrated quarries of marble at Paros, we are told that—'The Turks are so blind to their own advantages as not to suffer the exportation of this valuable commodity, out of a religious fear lest the Christians should employ it in making statues, which is looked upon as a great abomination, and expressly forbidden by the law of Mahomet, as an impious imitation of the works of God.'

On their arrival at Constantinople, the voyagers waited on the English ambassador; in whose palace they were lodged during the whole time of their residence in that capital. The Hippodrome, the Mosques, and other public buildings, are described.

'Between two obelisks in the Hippodrome, is a brazen pillar twelve feet high, formed by three serpents twisted round one another; the heads of which being placed in a triangular position, composed a sort of capital. It is imagined that the golden tripod, offered as a present in the temple of Apollo at Delphi, by the united body of Greeks, after the battle at Platea, was supported by this serpentine pillar;—Sultan Amurat, one day passing this way, to make an experiment of the strength of his arm, beat off the head of one of the serpents with his topouz (an instrument which the Turks use when on horseback): his followers, in imitation of their sovereign, destroyed the remaining two, and the pillar now remains destitute of its capital.'—

'During our stay in this vast metropolis, I applied my whole thoughts towards informing myself of the maxims and customs of a people so different from those, which I had till then been conversant with; in which inquiries I had very good success.' The Earl had the good fortune to make acquaintance with a person who had long been 'conversant in the most eminent Turkish families, and been himself employed in many very important state transactions; till upon a change of ministry, (which too often, in these countries, proves fatal to all such as were engaged in the late administration) he was obliged to save his life by flying for refuge to the English Ambassador; who on our departure, sent him with us to Christendom, far out of the reach of his enemies persecutions.'

The character of the Turks, as here drawn, strongly expresses their great contempt of every nation and religion except their own. 'Haughty and arrogant in their prosperity; and, on the contrary, mean and abject under the frowns of fortune.' At the same time, the author praises their piety towards the Creator, their exact observance of the laws of their religion, their charity towards distressed persons, 'their unexampled integrity in trade,' and the general decorum of their manners.—'When a Turk addresses his equal, he gives him the title of brother; if it be one older than himself, he calls him master; if one of fewer years, he speaks to him by the name of son.' A very particular account is given of their religion; which, perhaps, more than that of any other people, has moulded and fixed the character of its followers. The relation of the ceremonies and formalities practised with sick people is curious:

'When a person is at the point of death, his relations immediately send for the Imam of the parish, whose business it is to attend the person till the time of his death, to comfort him under his affliction, to exhort him to a sincere repentance of his sins, and repeat to him over and over the profession of the Mahometan faith. He afterwards begins to read, with a very audible voice, several chapters of the Coran, never desisting till the person has expired.'

Whatever benefit the sick man derives from such comfort in the next world, it deprives him of all chance of a longer continuance in this.

In speaking of the women, it is said that, notwithstanding the rigour of a despotic husband, whose power is almost unlimited, they have many opportunities of favouring a lover. Other travellers write differently. The author of *Observations on the Government and Manners of the Turks* asserts that "It is as easy to scale Heaven, as to come at the Turkish ladies." The following passage, in the volume before us, may possibly have been dictated by more fortunate experience; 'Their measures for procuring opportunities of frequent interviews are always so well laid, that a discovery is next to impossible; and we may venture to affirm, that a person who had ever experienced an intrigue with a Turkish woman, would have no further taste for the ladies of any other country, whom they would find, in every particular, so much their inferiors.' That the Earl remained always constant in this opinion may be much doubted. On the subject of divorces, he is less civil:—'The wisdom of the Turkish law' leaving this matter wholly to the men, because women are 'of a more mutable temper,' the ladies cannot, except those of a very superior quality, get rid of a husband on any pretence. Considering how much the Turks are devoted to their religion, no greater insult perhaps could be offered to the sex, than that regulation which allows that 'a Christian woman may be married to a Turk without being obliged to change her faith.' The females of the royal family, however, 'may be affirmed to enjoy the most happy state of any in the whole Turkish empire. These princesses, as it is contrary to the law for them or their children to succeed to the sovereignty, are by no means looked upon with an eye of suspicion:'—'over them the husband has no sort of authority, and on the contrary is obliged to act more like their slave.'—They enjoy 'their revenues which belong to them as daughters to the Grand Signor, and are attended in a manner suitable to their rank and condition.'

The author has remarked that, 'in relation to their servants and domestics, there is no nation in the world happier than the Turks.' Very little of this happiness falls to the share of the servants; the majority of whom are slaves bought in the public market.

> 'The greatest income of the Mirzas or Nobles consists of slaves and horses; of both which (to make use of the expression) they keep large studs, profiting by their increase and propagation. Of the servants bought in this manner, there is not one that dares offer a word in the presence of his master, without it is an answer of some question, and that in very few words, and with the utmost deference and humility. They stand always with their hands crossed before them, observing every motion of their master, and by their obsequiousness almost preventing his desires. If they are found to be any way remiss in the performance of their duty, they are severely bastinadoed.'

The description of the Turkish government includes an account of the different offices; as well those of the Seraglio, as those which are constituted for the management of public affairs; the military establishments, and the administration of justice; with a brief account of the different nations and sects subject to the Grand Signor. Lord S. concludes with observing that, 'in the fundamental rules, upon strict examination, one may discover many excellent maxims, originally well calculated for the advantage of the people, but wholly subverted by the injustice and wickedness of those in power.'

Next follows an account of the revolution at Constantinople in the year 1730, in which the Sultan Achmet III. was deposed. The events in this narrative are not clearly related; and the few reflections that are interspersed require some of the allowance to which, as being the ideas of a young man, they may be intitled. The facts however, we doubt not, will be received as authentic, considering the writer's means of acquiring information respecting an event which was then so recent.

Departing from Constantinople, they sailed to Smyrna; which, says Lord S. 'of all the seven cities, that contended for the honour of having been the birth-place of Homer, has undoubtedly the most reason on her side.' From Smyrna, they sailed to Scio antiently Chios. 'The island of Scio,' says the author, 'may be justly esteemed the most beautiful and flourishing island of the whole Archipelago.' 'The capital city, which bears the same name as the island, may very well be reckoned one of the fairest cities throughout the whole Levant.' The principal produce of this island is the mastic, a very rich gum, of which it yields 'every year an incredible quantity.'

Sailing by Samos and Patmos, they anchored at Stanchio; an island 'which rivals, if not surpasses, the island of Scio in beauty and fertility.' Among the curiosities of Stanchio, is noticed a sycamore tree: 'It extends its branches, which are supported by many antient pillars of porphyry, verd antique, and other precious marbles, in the exact form of a circle, from the outward verge of which to the trunk I measured forty-five large paces. Beneath the shade of this sycamore is a very beautiful fountain, round which the Turks have erected several chiosks or summer houses.'

Two days after their departure from Stanchio, the voyagers anchored at Rhodes, but were obliged immediately to put to sea with all expedition, as they were informed that the island had been for some time afflicted with the plague. To make the reader amends, eighteen pages are employed on a history of Rhodes, beginning at the two hundredth and tenth year after the Deluge. This island is described as 'by no means yielding to Stanchio in fruitfulness.' In six days from Rhodes, they anchored opposite to the city of Arnicho in Cyprus. A summary history of this island, from the earliest accounts, is given; and it is one of the most entertaining and best digested abridgments that we find in the work. Cyprus is described to be 'in the winter, one of the most agreeable habitations in the world; the climate being mild and temperate, the air wholesome, and the face of the country covered with a most delightful verdure; in the summer it bears a quite different appearance, being burnt up by the scorching rays of the sun, and frequently overwhelmed by incredible numbers of locusts, which, after having devoured all the products of the earth, die in the months of July and August, and by the infected vapours which arise from the putrefaction of their carcasses, either produce the plague or malignant fevers, no less fatal to the inhabitants.'—Of almost every island mentioned in the passage from Constantinople, the author has given a short history.

Three days after having left Cyprus, the voyagers anchored at Alexandria. They visited Grand Cairo, the pyramids, (engravings of which accompany the descriptions,) and the catacombs. The descent into these latter affords much curious matter.—In the account of Egypt, is included a history of the Nile, and of the religion of the antient Egyptians.—Among the curiosities of Cairo, is mentioned 'an hospital with very plentiful endowments for two thousand blind men.'—The dancing devotions of the dervises are described nearly in the same manner as by other travellers.—Of the 'Bedoween Arabs,' we are told;

> 'They have a secret to defend themselves against the bite of vipers, the effects of which are so extraordinary, that, had I not been an eye witness, I should have given very little credit to any accounts of them. Many of these Arabs make it their livelihood to gather vipers, which they find in great quantities upon the verge of the desert; disposing of them for three sequins a hundred to the apothecaries of Grand Cairo. The manner of their gathering them is by observing early in the morning their traces in the sand, which they follow till they discover the animal, which without the least hesitation they take up in their fingers, and put him into a large leathern bag containing sometimes six or seven hundred vipers. It was in an apothecary's shop that I saw one of these people come in with a bag of an hundred, who, after he had made his bargain, seated himself on the ground, together with his two companions, and taking the vipers out of the sack one by one, cut off their heads, skinned and gutted them. They made no sort of difficulty of putting their hands into the sack, and taking up an handful of these noxious animals, in the same manner as I have seen people put their hands into a basket of corn, and take up an handful to examine the goodness of it. To my enquiries I was answered, it was a gift enjoyed only by two families, delivered to them by a saint many ages ago.—What to me seems most probable, is that they are acquainted with some herb, to which these venomous creatures have such an antipathy, that if they rub any part of their bodies with it, it incapacitates them from biting that part. Among these vipers are some rather less than the others, differing about the head, upon which they carry two horns about a quarter of an inch long. The bite of these horned vipers is inevitable death. The Arabs, however, treated these with the same familiarity as they did the others, letting them run between their fingers, putting

them into their bosoms, and farther, to satisfy my curiosity, running their fingers into their mouths without the least dread or hesitation.'

Leaving Egypt, Lord S. and his companions sailed to the westward, and anchored at Lampedosa, an island situated between Malta and the coast of Tunis. According to our author, this island is 30 miles in circumference; an extent beyond that which has commonly been ascribed to it. They found here only one solitary inhabitant, a hermit, whose habitation was a grotto: but the island was formerly well peopled, and subject to the King of Naples and Sicily. It has a good port, near to which stood a city, with a strong castle. 'They were always a very unhappy people, being continually exposed to the depredations of the Turkish cruizers; by whom under the command of the renowned Barberoussa, they were in the end all made prisoners, and transported to Algiers, ever since which the island has remained uninhabited.'—The worthy hermit appears to have cultivated the good will equally of Christians and Mahometans.—'Joining to the cavern, serving for his habitation, is a chapel of the same nature, in which he celebrates mass. Opposite to this chapel is another grotto, in which is the tomb of a Turkish saint. The hermit keeps a lamp always burning at the head of his tomb, upon which account he remains unmolested by the Mahometans, who frequently come to Lampedosa to water their ships and galleys.'

The next course of the voyagers was to Malta; the description of which island is accompanied by a history of the Knights, from the origin of their institution as Knights Hospitallers; and by an account of the different establishments and regulations of the order.—Here the ship performed quarantine.

The sequel of the voyage was to Lisbon, then back to Gibraltar, (the streights between which and Africa the author has described to be only four leagues in breadth,) to Malaga, to Carthagena, to the island of Minorca, and to Genoa: 'whither being arrived,' says the Earl, 'I finished my voyage; which, during the whole course of it, had proved much to my satisfaction, and prosperous even beyond expectation.'

Most of the descriptions occurring in this work are of the same character with those which we have noticed in the account of Sicily. To every place or building mentioned, a history "*ab origine mundi*" is attached; and consequently much more is introduced of what is collected from books, than of what was furnished by the voyage. We are told of the Morea, that 'the form of the peninsula is likened to the leaf of a plane tree by Dionysius in his Periegesis; the Isthmus being compared to the stalk, and the many gulphs that are on each side, to the incisions which are seen in the leaf. It received the name of Peloponnesus from Pelops, son of Tantalus; who bringing an army,' &c.—At the Hellespont, Xerxes, enraged, 'ordered his attendants to give the sea a hundred stripes, and threw into it a pair of chains as a punishment for presuming to oppose itself to the will and pleasure of so great a monarch,' &c.—Sestos and Abydos 'were famous in antiquity for the amorous intercourse of Hero and Leander; a young man of Abydos. It had been his custom for some time to swim over the Hellespont by night; by which he carried on his intrigue with the utmost secrecy. But being detained at home by continued tempests that prevented his passage, and feeling a lover's impatience, he trusted himself to the sea before the storms were entirely abated, and was drowned.' These historical details are embellished with numerous extracts from antient and modern authors, but principally from the former. Many hundred lines (we believe that we should be safe in saying thousands) are thus scattered throughout the volume. All this, however, must have cost very considerable labour; and, indeed, it appears that the completion of his classical studies was one of the Earl's objects in undertaking the voyage.

In the beginning of this article, we remarked on the scarcity of information furnished by the editor respecting the publication of this work. It must be pre-supposing very little curiosity in a reader, if it be expected that he will be satisfied with such slender intelligence as that it was written by the Earl in the years 1738-9, and published by the editor in 1799. Some circumstances there are which the volume itself sufficiently explains. For instance: it bears all the marks of having been presented to the world exactly in the state in which it was originally composed. Whether the neglect which it experienced from the noble author proceeded from disinclination, or from the pressure of other avocations, we cannot pretend to determine; but, from the length of time, most probably the former was the motive. It may however be presumed, from its being suffered to repose so long on the shelf, that he did not deem it, in an uncorrected state, completely fit for public appearance; and it cannot be doubted that, if he had undertaken the task of revision, it would have been rendered a much more valuable performance. Notwithstanding the unformed style, and other marks of juvenile composition, it exhibits a degree of classical knowlege and an acquaintance with antient history, which are proofs of extraordinary and successful application to study. Many of the remarks indicate an active and observant mind; and sometimes we are presented with very neat historical abridgments.

One of the greatest disappointments, which we experienced in reading this volume, arose from the expectations which we had previously indulged, of being admitted to travel in pleasant society; and of being introduced to some degree of social intercourse with the people of the countries which were visited. So far from being gratified in these hopes, we find no companion; and we meet with scarcely any enlivening anecdote, or incident of any kind, in which the author is personally concerned. In short, the reader of this volume makes as little progress towards an acquaintance with his author, as does the reader of the Modern Universal Gazetteer. This, however, is to be mentioned more as a subject of regret, than a ground of complaint: since the traveller who communicates his discoveries is not, consequently, obliged to relate his adventures.

We ought not to omit to mention that we are furnished with descriptions of several curious coins and medals; and also with copies of various inscriptions, some of which we do not remember to have seen in any other publication.

Art. II. *Observations on the various Systems of Canal Navigation,* with Inferences practical and mathematical; in which Mr. Fulton's Plan of Wheel-Boats, and the Utility of subterraneous and of small Canals are particularly investigated, including an Account of the Canals and inclined Planes of China. By William Chapman, Member of the Society of Civil Engineers in London, and M.R.I.A. 4to. pp. 104, and 4 Plates. 6s. sewed. Taylor, Holborn.

In the xxiid volume of our New Series, p. 411, we took notice of Mr. Fulton's Treatise on the improvement of canal navigation; and to that article we would now refer our readers, as Mr. F.'s work seems to have principally occaſioned the performance at present under consideration: which is a sensible and candid examination of the practicability of Mr. Fulton's ingenious proposals, conducted in a manner that does Mr. Chapman great credit, and evinces much experience, and knowlege of the subject.

Mr. Chapman commences by describing the various means that have hitherto been practised, for overcoming ascent and descent in canals and rivers; and he observes that

> 'No system can ever be so perfect, as to be unbounded in the propriety of application; and, therefore, the mode of overcoming ascent and descent by locks, which is, undoubtedly, a noble invention, and almost generally useful, is not without its limits, as to utility. Having conceded this point, which every impartial man must do; I feel myself more at liberty to controvert the opinion thrown out by Mr. Fulton, in his Treatise on the improvement of canals, that locks will in future be found to be ineligible in all cases; and be superseded by some system similar to what he has laid down.'

He next proceeds to examine the comparative expences of forming narrow and wide canals; and we regret that we are in a great measure obliged to pass over this part of the work, as because it would require the necessary diagrams to render it intellible. It is, however, demonstrated that the saving of expence, in forming canals, is far from being in the exact proportion of the breadth; since the embankments, towing paths, &c. must be nearly the same in both cases. The different situations, in which either mode should be preferred, are fully described; and Mr. C. admits that 'the sides of the mountains are also frequently too steep, and the soil too shallow, to admit of wide canals without great expence; therefore, under these predicaments, inclined planes and small boats are most eligible.'

'The savings in such instances as I have premised, will be very considerably less than one half by adopting the navigation, described by Mr. Fulton, for four-ton boats, in place of those of 60 tons. I will call the saving two-fifths; and then proceed to examine what must be sacrificed for that acquisition.

'1st. The carriage, in a very considerable degree, of all articles that will take damage by being wet *: because the narrow boats of 20 feet length, resting on two transverse lines over the wheels, would, with heavy cargoes, be very liable to strain, so as to become leaky: and admitting they had a raised ceiling, which they must have for the carriage of dry goods, the water from the change of position of the boat, on ascending and descending the inclined planes, will run to the extremities, and be dashed about so as to damage the goods; unless the ceiling were raised at the ends, so as greatly to reduce the stowage of the boats.

'2d. When boats, on the different levels, are committed to the care of different men, it will be impossible to fix under whose charge

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'* Under this description must be included grain, the chief produce of the land; the easier disposal of which forms the general inducement for landed proprietors to encourage canals. From this cause, and the creation of demand for internal products of the earth, that might otherwise lie dormant, and for the conveyance of lime for manure to parts that could not otherwise easily obtain it, the landed interest receives more benefit from internal navigation than the adventurers who incur the charge of the works, and run the risque of their failure of reasonable success; which although dubious to the latter, can never be so to the land-owner; as, by means of canals, distant and unfavourable situations come under regular cultivation, and advance of rents far beyond what could otherwise be given. The frequent opposition from that quarter, and the support that such opposition meets with, clearly shew, that gentlemen of landed interest do not in general see this advantage in the light in which I have described it: the same opposition, I am informed, existed on the first introduction of turnpike roads, the value of which has now been sufficiently experienced; and the superior advantages of canals cannot fail being soon as generally known.'

the damage happened, unless it became a rule to examine the boats at every place of change of men, which would be attended with too much delay.

'3d. From the same causes, and the boats having no decks, it will be difficult to prevent pilferage of liquors and small articles.

'4th. Whenever the wind blew strong, the boats would be liable to take in water over their gunwales, notwithstanding their tarpaulins, unless they were battoned and nailed down as in ships hatchways: and, in every cross reach, the string of boats would blow ashore without a man to every boat to keep them off, which would be far too expensive. At Ketley, they had rails projecting into the canal, on the convex points, to keep the boats in their regular course, which enabled them to go forward in moderate weather; but to navigate, in any strength of wind, they would, if even they had rails all the way, require the aid of men to enable boats that were going opposite ways to pass each other. Or, otherwise, they must track their boats with such speed as to keep them off the shore, and consequently have very few to a horse.

'In moderate weather, it would be difficult for a horse to drag a line of them 200 feet long, viz. 10 boats as proposed by Mr. Fulton. The section of water opposed is but small; but the form of the ends of the vessels is that which gives the greatest resistance; and they are often repeated, which must produce a considerable effect, although one vessel follows in the wake of another. Further causes of resistance will arise from the line of boats frequently forming a zigzag, and from their vast surface exposed to the water. The whole of the effects combined are not reducible to calculation, and must depend on experience.

'5th. Packs of hemp and wool, bales of cotton, sacks of hops, crates of earthenware and of glass, oak bark, bavins, &c. &c. would lie too high, so as to overturn the boats, unless iron, lead, blocks of tin, or other ponderous articles, were carried at the same time; without which, these boats would not carry half their tonnage of light goods in any package; the Staffordshire square-sectioned boats of seven feet width, will seldom stow, without becoming top heavy, more than two-fifths of the weight they can carry, at a less proportionate depth than the boats in question must be loaded to, to carry four tons.

'In addition to the articles already mentioned, these boats cannot carry either long or crooked timber; the former, if of fir, may be floated: but the latter, if of heavy wood, will sink, and cannot easily be managed. Neither would these boats be very suitable for the conveyance of quick-lime, nor would they carry (because of their soon overturning) nearly their tonnage of wheat in sacks, and still less of rye, barley, oats, and malt: I, however, do not mean to infer that they will not carry these latter articles at all; but only that the quantities will be less, nearly in the ratio of their specific gravities; which deficiency in tonnage may, in some instances, be compensated by reduction of toll. This width of boat is, however, what cannot be recommended for general purposes.

'The broad boats of 14 feet will nearly carry their full tonnage of light goods, which circumstance arises from two causes; the one is their form (as well as their width) which occasions their metacentre, or point below which the joint weight of boat and cargo may lie without overturning, to be higher than in the other boats; and the other is, that they are sunk, when laden, to a much less proportion of their width: besides which, when their draught of water is indefinite (as will further appear from the next chapter) the quantity of light articles that can be carried by boats of different widths, but of similar form and length, will be as the squares of their widths; therefore, a boat of four feet width, in place of carrying half as much as a similar one of eight feet, will carry only a fourth, although of the same length; and but a ninth of one of twelve feet width.

'6th. The trans-shipping of articles removes the responsibility; and, as boats are frequently wanted to navigate both canals and rivers, which cannot be done by the small boats, that degree of responsibility must be lost, and the charge and delay of trans-shipping be incurred.

'7th. The saving in point of reduction of canal dues, would not, in articles of merchandize, be equivalent to the inconveniences described.'

Then follows a detail of the advantages to be derived from combining the two modes, chiefly among mines and quarries; with practical remarks and calculations on the construction of canal vessels, &c.

Two chapters succeed, on the internal navigation of America and China; the last of which contains many important remarks, closely connected with the subject under investigation.

'The Chinese, in their interior navigations, appear to have exercised less of the inventive than the imitative powers; as all their attempts in that useful science, amount to nothing more than a servile imitation of Nature, in the navigation she affords upon those rivers, where the quantity of water is such as to give depth, notwithstanding the inclined position of their surface.'*—

'It is an argument against the inventive powers of the Chinese, that they have not hitherto constructed locks, as a great part of invention lies in the conception of the possibility of the event; and the Chinese have been informed, for upwards of a century, of its absolute possibility; as the Jesuit Missionaries sent to China by Lewis the XIVth, in 1685, acquainted them with the principles of a lock, with which they appeared astonished. The fathers also thought that any one who would carry to China the model of a lock would be well received; and cause as much admiration as the first watches that the Missionaries presented to the Emperor.'

We are sorry that the nature of the subject prevents us from following Mr. Chapman farther into the particulars of this able inquiry. We fully agree with him that, where plenty of water is at command, and other obstacles do not occur, locks and moderate-sized canals are preferable to others: that smaller canals, with inclined planes, may be judiciously branched off according to circumstances; and that 'in fine, canals have been, and must still continue to be, of dimensions varied according to the form and species of the boats designed to navigate them: which should differ, so as to coincide with the circumstances of the country passed through; the nature of its commerce and products; and the canals, and rivers, or lakes, that must eventually be navigated by the same vessels. Thus no general system can be adopted, and nothing extensive can be determined on with propriety, without the aid of great experience and abilities.'

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* This reminds us of the late Mr. Brindley's answer, when asked in the House of Commons of what use rivers were? that "God Almighty did not intend rivers for navigation; they were only the natural drains of a country."

We shall close this article with strongly recommending those, who wish to obtain information on this interesting subject, to peruse the works of Messrs. Fulton and Chapman, as containing together a valuable combination of ingenuity and judgment.

Art. III. *The Political Economy of Inland Navigation, Irrigation, and Drainage;* with Thoughts on the Multiplication of Commercial Resources; and on Means of bettering the Condition of Mankind, by the Construction of Canals, by the Improvement of their various Capacities for Commerce, Transfer, Agriculture, Household Supplies, and Mechanical Power; and by the unlimited Extension thereof into the remotest Interior of Great Britain and of Foreign Parts. By W. Tatham. 4to. pp. 520, and 11 Plates. 1l. 6s. Boards. Faulder. 1799.

This large work is partly a compilation from different writers on the subject of inland navigation; with the addition of some projects, and cursory remarks on their probable effects and influence in the various concerns of life: including also statements of the population, trade, and commerce of various countries. When completed by another volume, according to the proposal, it bids fair to constitute an extensive account of what has been advanced on the subject; and some idea of it may be formed from the present volume: about three fourths of which are occupied with reports on the London docks, and on a canal of insulation round London.

Of the author's projects, and of his *long-winded* composition, the following is a specimen:

'My own inventions, for passing vessels from one level of a canal to another, here follow;

'The inclined planes, designed to mount a perpendicular summit, between a lower and upper line of canal, or other Inland Navigation, (regulating the *quantum of power* by the general depth of water) is

particularly

particularly suited to such a place as the falls of Niagara, contemplating that place as the commercial center of all the surrounding countries of the lakes, the grand mart for the raw and rough prepared materials of interior American produce, and the political center where the provincial interests of Great Britain and the United States should be made to harmonize, and meet each other in mutual offices of brotherly love, and reciprocal advantage.

‘ Hence arises a national convenience, in our contriving to construct planes for the transfer of large vessels at that particular place, as one of the greatest examples in the world, and, consequently, applicable to any other spot, which may require similar machines, but upon a smaller scale; because, in the first inventions, for the accommodation of a traffic upon such expanded prospects as this scene affords, and where nature militates in her own operations, to concentrate those of an immense future commerce, the mind should not be contented with the mere make-shift convenience of a selfish period of time, or the erection of temporary works, which must needs be eradicated by our succeeding generation, to make way for the accumulated trade of a highly-increased population; but we should extend our thoughts into the prospect of future occasions, so that those who come after us may bless our forethought, and that we may enjoy the comfort of a capacity fully adequate to any probable contingency, while we may thus certainly invest monies on a sound datum, which cannot fail to remunerate liberally to our offspring, although the functions of finance may now enable us to anticipate the result of future advantages to the aid of our present necessities nevertheless.

‘ It should be understood, however, that the present infant state of commerce upon the lakes, is far short of being adequate to the support of such machines, (by the mere toll of boatage), as may be equal, in their power, to transferring any vessel whatsoever, or howsoever great may be her burthen, for which, there is a depth of water to come up the rivers Hudson and Saint Lawrence, to the falls; or sufficient soundings in the waters above to answer for the largest possible sized barks, which can also navigate the upper lakes; for this should be the criterion for regulating the passage over that great point of partage at Niagara, which nature and national treaties have rendered equally important, and of joint consideration in the commercial and political interests of England and of America.

‘ These reflections have induced me to study the accommodation of individual enterprise, and the casual passage of ever so small a number of large vessels at the present day, without losing by the erection of an apparatus, sufficiently powerful to this end; because, also, there is the additional stimulus to such an undertaking, which arises from the prospect of *increasing* commercial resources, and of multiplying the comforts of civilization with unexampled rapidity, if vessels from Quebec on the one hand, and New York on the other, can be thus helped to pursue a voyage into wild and savage regions, upon those fresh-water seas, which are of so vast expanse, as to open communications nearly as much further into the interior country, as the primary distance of a voyage across the Atlantic ocean, from London to the American coast.

‘ To effect these desirable ends without loss, nay, rather with a present eligible profit upon the operation, and a future prospect founded upon sound data, to which very conspicuous natural advantages invite the adventurers of both English and American monies, upon the best possible prospect and security, I have conceived the idea of erecting works fully adequate to the end proposed in the first instance; and I trust they will be found justified, by the capacity of a contrivance, to employ both its attendants and machinery to full advantage, at all times whatsoever, when vessels are not passing. To attain all the proposed advantages of such a project it is only requisite to construct the inclined plane of solid masonry, disposed into one immense edifice, the roof whereof should form an inclined plane of twenty, or twenty-five degrees elevation, upon which vessels may pass and repass, while the structure below is formed into suitable compartments for the various forges, furnaces, saw mills, grist mills, and factories for preparing raw and rough materials for market, which nature has presented to the notice of British and American intercourse.

‘ The elevated site of this cascade falling from the inexhaustible reservoir of the lakes, which is backed by an infinite supply of springs and running waters, which will continue to feed it to the end of time, will afford an all-competent mechanic power, which, by communicating rotary motion to successive water-wheels, constructed in the floor of the inclined plane, which forms also the roof of this grand national structure, designed to be built with suitable platforms, leading from the plane to the respective stories of the building, observing order and uniformity; and these wheels respectively giving motion to the varieties of mechanism *below their axis*, instead of the usual method of placing the machinery above the axis of the water-wheel, (which is, perhaps, a habit acquired, merely with views to obviate deficiencies in the limited power of small falls, and thereby to obtain the greatest possible force) it will possess a capacity for casting in and out of geer, to perform the alternate operations of passing vessels, or grinding corn, sawing timber, beating hemp, and malling metals for exportation, as occasion may require.

‘ Thus, by disposing the plane into one piece of compact architecture, supported by strong arches, and ornamented with suitable columns, it will compose a huge pile of building, answering all the ends of a town, suited to the preparatory manufactures of this grand mart for commercial materials; and the shaft or axis of each successive water-wheel, down the angle of inclination, laying in a transverse direction to the face of the plane, and communicating so as to work tooth and pinion into the contact geer of the vessel, or into a rack screwed to the angular platform, or under the bottom of a cradle, for receiving the vessel, (as the case may happen to be respectively) and guided by a strong and suitable double railway, extending from the top to the bottom of the plane, so as to receive vessels from the pool below, and transfer them safely over the summit point or bridge of the plane above, will have an ample capacity for receiving vessels of any form or construction, and conveying them upon the roof of the building, (as it were) whensoever they have occasion to pass; and, at all other times, the customary avocations of the place might proceed forward with their timeous pursuits.'

The proposition made to Alexander, of forming mount Athos into the statue of a man, which should contain a large city in the left hand, was a trifle to this!! Had it been intended to have run Mr. Fulton's ingenious plans into a species of burlesque, it could scarcely have been carried higher than by this flighty scheme. We cannot refrain from expressing ourselves strongly in this instance, because the extravagance of it may tend to do much injury, by influencing many readers to think indifferently of all that has been advanced by Mr. Fulton; who has judiciously confined his consideration of inclined planes to small vessels. Mr. Chapman also (to whom Mr. Tatham has not sufficiently attended,) has ably shewn that, where there is a command of water, and difficulties of other kinds do not ensue, the lock-system must maintain the advantage. The proposition of rolling ships of the greatest burthen down an inclined plane shews that the author is but little acquainted with the nature of large vessels of navigation; which, if they touch on any partial support, are doomed to immediate destruction. So great a command of water, as occurs at Niagara, affords every recommendation of locks: through which all ships might pass with safety, and extend commerce on the greatest scale to the most distant regions of America. The time that would unavoidably be occupied in passing such extensive locks would be a small object, compared with the bulk of the vessels that would be necessary to navigate those waters.

We shall take some notice of the subject which occupies the greatest part of this book, viz. a canal of insulation round London; and which, without farther investigation, carries with it a degree of plausibility.

There is a limited distance, however, within which it is not economical to convey goods on water, if they must be carted to the water side, and again thence to be delivered: since more time is occupied in loading and unloading, &c. than would be required for the horses to go the whole of the distance; besides the damage and waste, as well as expence, that ensue from shifting the cargo so often. Suppose that a farmer has occasion to send a load to a distance of ten miles, and a canal passes near his premises, and not far from the place of delivery: but that he has to load a cart to carry it to the water side; and again from the water to its destination. He would certainly hesitate to use the water conveyance, and would with more advantage send his cart the whole journey; particularly if he were certain of a load to be returned with it. A canal, therefore, could not answer in that view, unless it extended to every farm,

&c.

&c. and passed through every street, as at Venice; which is impracticable here. The inconveniences, however, arising from a canal of insulation would more than counterbalance the good, as the bridges must be extremely numerous by being on every outlet from the town, and very troublesome from the great height of them which would be necessary to admit of a towing path, &c. under the arches.

The question of extending canals about London, we conceive, should in a great measure be determined by considering whether the wharfs above bridge are sufficient for the requisite depositories of stores, to be retailed out in the regular supply of London and its vicinity. For the larger mercantile concerns, ample provision is intended to be made on the new docks. If it should be found that the Thames does not afford sufficient wharfs, a cut might be made from the Paddington canal, in the most direct and least inconvenient line, providing plenty of space for the desired purposes. Such wharfs, no doubt, are highly beneficial, as centres to exchange the articles of London for those of the country. It may however be argued, by some, that all this is effected by the communication between the Grand Junction Canal and the Thames at Brentford.

We repeat that we cannot withhold our censure of these indiscriminating works, which possess neither originality nor judgment; and which, by applying the inventions of others (good within certain limitations) to a ridiculous excess, do the greatest possible injury to the spirit of forming canals:—a spirit which, when guided by sound judgment, may produce the highest benefit to the community.

ART. IV. *St. Leon:* A Tale of the Sixteenth Century. By William Godwin. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. sewed. Robinsons. 1799.

NOVELS and romances have often been chosen by theorists, as most convenient vehicles of philosophical sentiment. Opinions, when artfully interwoven in the thread of an interesting story, assume a fascinating and imposing form; and speculations, however wild and extravagant, then appear under the semblance of *truths* supported by *facts*. If a philosopher employs himself in constructing a theory of the universe, after the utmost efforts of genius, he is expected fairly to make his appeal to nature, and to confirm his system by actual observation and experiment: so also the physician, who proposes any new method in the healing art, is required to produce *cases* to substantiate and give it credit; and if this be refused or omitted, both the philosopher and physician are ranked in the class of visionaries. The moral speculatist, however, manages with more facility and advantage: the *cases* which substantiate his theory, as well as the *theory itself*, are matters of invention; and, by a tissue of imaginary representations, the mind is seduced into an admission of certain statements as the very truths of nature, which perhaps neither have nor can have any existence in reality. An author, who possesses any brilliancy of imagination, will find this easy to himself and pleasant to the general reader: but it may be questioned whether "a sturdy moralist" would thus indulge himself, or whether it be consistent with the character of him who professes to be actuated by a pure and sacred love of truth.

From the author of the well-known work on *Political Justice*, who could have expected the singular tale before us? Is it a mode of instruction which such a philosopher ought to select? Is truth obliged to invoke the aid of the wildest fictions; and will it be said that virtue and contentment are best taught in the school of romance? As Mr. Godwin must be aware that his novels will obtain readers, he should consider whether such publications are to be employed without extreme caution in disseminating instruction.—We make this remark not because the present tale comes in support of the principles exhibited in the work on Political Justice; for it is in fact a recantation of some of the leading principles of the system there laid down; and it proves that, with all his sublime sentiments, Mr. G. is as much the creature of circumstances as any other man. We may say of him what he says of the negro Hector, in the romance before us; that 'Love taught him a lesson he had never learned before.' His attachment to the late Miss Wollstonecraft, which caused him to become a husband and a father, seems to have operated a complete revolution in his opinion respecting the affections and charities of private life; so that, though these qualities met with no indulgence in the "Enquiry concerning Political Justice," they are in the present work treated with respect, and honoured with an impassioned eulogy. In the preface, Mr. G. himself notices and apologizes for this inconsistency; observing that, 'for more than four years, he had been anxious for opportunity and leisure to modify some of the earlier chapters of that work, in conformity to the sentiments inculcated in this.' Such a modification as is here announced, the public will be happy to see; and we are of opinion that, (though Mr. G. will not allow it,) if his new ideas be fairly pursued, they will subvert some fundamental principles of his system; since there can be no virtue in the purest indulgence of the amiable affections and charities of domestic life, if self-oblivion, and universal regard to general benefit in all our actions, be essential to virtue.

A work written by the late Dr. John Campbell, intitled *Hermippus Redivivus*, or *The Sage's Triumph*, in which with apparent seriousness the Dr. undertakes to shew that the life and vigor of man may be prolonged *puellarum anhelitu*, and produces a variety of grave ironical reasoning and invented evidence in support of that curious position, (similar to what an anonymous ingenious writer has given in a publication of the same class, intitled *Lucina sine Concubitu*,) contains an anecdote which suggested to Mr. Godwin the first hint of the romance of St. Leon; who is supposed to possess the secrets of the *philosopher's stone* and of the *elixir vitæ*, by which he has an unbounded command of wealth, and the power of making himself immortal. So privileged an individual will be imagined to be the happiest of human beings: but the object of this tale is to shew, according to the Stoical doctrine, the inferior value of external things, and to prove that "*our very wishes give us not our wish.*" In the construction of this fictitious history, much art and genius are displayed, mixed with some peculiarities; and much good composition is manifested, alloyed by some affectation and inflation. The author has contrived to keep alive our affections, and to intersperse a variety of apposite remarks through an interesting narrative: but we must confess that we do not perceive the utility of drawing our attention to such ideal beings as St. Leon. Extravagant fictions are not necessary to demonstrate the insufficiency of the most unbounded wealth to procure happiness for ourselves, or to confer it on others. Philosophers, moralists, and divines, have made a thousand observations of this kind, and the history of wealth and power invariably confirms them. During the mania of the *philosopher's stone*, such a tale might have had its use: but it is now as obsolete as would be a farce or novel designed to ridicule astrology and the casting of nativities.

The effects of immortality in this world, were it attainable by any individual, have not been so much considered as those of unbounded wealth. Juvenal has well described the miseries attendant on the most virtuous and vigorous old age*: but Mr. Godwin goes a step farther, and paints the wretchedness of sublunary immortality. St. Leon, like the wandering Jew, stands isolated in existence. He lives, indeed, but every thing dear to him is dying around him; his affections are checked by the consciousness that he must lose every thing that he loves ; and he finds that the *elixir vitæ* only imprisons him for ever in a charnel-house. Even in the exercise of benevolence he was wretched. ' Surrounded and regaled with animated praise, (says St. Leon of himself, vol. iv. p. 66.,) I was not content : I wanted a friend. I was alone amidst the innumerable multitudes of those I blessed. I knew no cordiality ; I could repose no confidence ; I could find no equal.'

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* "*Ut vigeant sensus animi, ducenda tamen sunt*
Funera natorum, rogus aspiciendus amatæ
Conjugis, et fratris, plenæque sororibus urnæ.
Hæc data pœna diu viventibus, ut renovata
Semper clade domus multis in luctibus, inque
Perpetuo mærore, et nigra veste senescant."—Sat. x. l. 240.

The character of St. Leon is drawn in a masterly manner. We shall trace the outline of that part of his history which is here given ; for, being immortal, it can only be an unfinished fragment. He is stated to have been born in the time of Francis I., Charles V., and our Henry VIII. ; to have been present at the celebrated interview between the first and last of these monarchs, and to have fought at the battle of Pavia between the two former, when Francis was made prisoner. These circumstances afford an opportunity of describing the martial spirit of that period. St. Leon, now about twenty years of age, renouncing military ambition, falls into the debaucheries and extravagance which in the Court of France succeeded the business of war ; from these, however, he was in some measure delivered by his marriage with Marguerite de Damville ; with whom he enjoyed great felicity at his castle of St. Leon, and by whom he had two sons (one of which died early) and three daughters : but, going unfortunately to Paris for the education of his son, he relapsed into vice, and particularly indulged the passion for gaming to such a degree as to lose the whole of his fortune. By this circumstance, St. Leon with his most amiable wife and family are oppressed with penury, and thrown into the deepest retirement. They go to Swisserland ; and when, by a variety of misfortunes, they are driven thence, they obtain a little cottage on the Lake of Constance. Here St. Leon commences an acquaintance with a mysterious stranger ; who, on his death-bed, reveals to him the secret of obtaining unbounded wealth and endless life*. St. Leon now looks forwards to vast enjoyment, but grievous disappointment awaits on all his hopes. The fatal present of the stranger, though it annihilated poverty, produced greater evils. He loses the confidence of his wife, and is abandoned by his son : is imprisoned at Constance, under suspicion ; escapes thence to Pavia, where his house is burnt down by the populace, under an idea of his being in league with the devil ; and in Spain his wife dies, and he is imprisoned in the dungeons of the Inquisition. He avoids, however, being burnt at an *auto da fé;* makes his escape; and by the use of the *elixir vitæ* he so renews his youth, that he cannot be known as Count St. Leon. He visits his daughters after this change, at the family castle, but without the possibility of being recognized, and without the pleasure and gratifications of a parent: he then travels to Hungary, and employs his gold-creating power in acts of benevolence and humanity; yet still disappointment and misery pursue him; and Bethlem Gabor, whom he had chosen for his friend and the object of his greatest kindness, rewards him with imprisonment in a horrid cavern belonging to a castle to which St. Leon went on a visit. Delivered from this region of darkness and misery, he meets with his son Charles, but without any of the pleasures naturally resulting from an interview between a parent and child after a long separation. While meaning kindness, he obstructs his son's happiness; and though at last he effects Charles's union with the object of his love, he is obliged to renounce the gratification of being a witness of it, and to become a miserable wanderer on the face of the earth.

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* How comes it to pass that this stranger yields to the sentence of mortality ?

Such in brief is the tale of St. Leon. Mr. G. apologizes for the boldness and irregularity of his design, 'and hopes he may be excused if he have mixed human feelings and passions with incredible situations, and rendered them impressive and interesting.' We cannot deny that he has accomplished this: yet why imagine incredible situations and absolute impossibilities, in order to work on our feelings, passions, and convictions? Might we not as well imagine men who could fly, or live under water like fish, or support life without eating and drinking? Of what use can such idle imaginations be to man in the actual state of his existence? We would put these questions to Mr. Godwin, because he would have it supposed that he has a moral and philosophical purpose to answer by his writings; and that he does not publish, like the vulgar herd of novelists, merely to gratify the wild fancies of love-sick misses and masters. We conclude that he is superior to so low an aim.

Having noticed several sketches and remarks, which were evidently suggested by the circumstances of the author's own life, and knowing his sentiments concerning marriage, we were not surprized at the following passage in p. 81, 82. vol. i.: but its dangerous tendency ought not to pass without animadversion:

'Few women of regular and reputable lives have that ease of manners, that flow of fancy, and that graceful intrepidity of thinking and expressing themselves, that is sometimes to be found among those who have *discharged themselves* in a certain degree *from the tyranny of custom.*'

How does this insidious remark tend to diminish the love of virtue in the female breast! The irregular fair have, it should seem, *discharged themselves from the tyranny of custom.* Dangerous sentiment! O ye fair readers, believe it not! We will oppose to it the admirable picture of a gamester, vol i. p. 148.

'No man who has not felt, can possibly image to himself the tortures of a gamester, of a gamester like me, who played for the improvement of my fortune, who played with the recollection of a wife and children dearer to me than the blood that bubbled through the arteries of my heart, who might be said, like the Asiatic savage, to make these relations the stake for which I threw, who saw all my own happiness and all theirs through the long visto of life, depending on the turn of a card! Hell is but the chimera of priests, to bubble idiots and cowards. What have they invented, to come into competition with what I felt! Their alternate interchange of flames and ice, is but a feeble image of the eternal varieties of hope and fear. All bodily racks and torments are nothing compared with certain states of the human mind. The gamester would be the most pitiable, if he were not the most despicable, creature that exists. Arrange ten bits of painted paper in a certain order, and he is ready to go wild with the extravagance of his joy. He is only restrained by some remains of shame from dancing about the room, and displaying the vileness of his spirit by every sort of freak and absurdity. At another time, when his hopes have been gradually worked up into a paroxysm, an unexpected turn arrives, and he is made the most miserable of men. Never shall I cease to recollect the sensation I have repeatedly felt, in the instantaneous sinking of the spirits, the conscious fire that spread over my visage, the anger in my eye, the burning dryness of my throat, the sentiment that in a moment was ready to overwhelm with curses the cards, the stake, my own existence and all mankind. How every malignant and insufferable passion seemed to rush upon my soul! What nights of dreadful solitude and despair did I repeatedly pass during the progress of my ruin! It was the night of the soul! My mind was wrapped in a gloom that could not be pierced! My heart was oppressed with a weight, that no power, human or divine, was equal to remove! My eyelids seemed to press downward with an invincible burthen! My eyeballs were ready to start and crack their sockets! I lay motionless the victim of ineffable horror! The whole endless night seemed to be filled with one vast, appalling, immoveable idea! It was a stupor, more insupportable and tremendous, than the utmost whirl of pain, or the fiercest agony of exquisite perception!'

Beautiful painting is to be seen in various parts of this romance, and we could extract pages of just observation and acute remark. For example:

'The passions of an husband and father will be found to be the true school of humanity.'

‘ *Adversity* is the season of sober thought, calls home the erratic mind, and *teaches us to be cheaply satisfied*.’

‘ It may be laid down as a rule, that they who cannot hate can least endure to be the objects of hatred.’

‘ The ingredients of sublimity are the materials of heroic virtue.’

‘ Our *senses* are the masters of our minds, and reason vainly opposes itself to the liveliness of their impressions.’

‘ *Feeling* does not stay to calculate with weights and a balance the importance and magnitude of every object that excites it: it flows impetuously from the heart, without consulting the cooler responses of the understanding.’

‘ There is something indescribably delicious in the concentration of mind.’

‘ Self-importance of man! upon how slight a basis do thy gigantic erections repose!’

If all Mr. Godwin's writings were of this complexion, we should read them with more satisfaction, and bestow on them a more liberal praise: but, since his mind is as excentric as it is vigorous, it is our duty to advise his readers to peruse him with caution, and to admire him with discrimination.

The reader will find, in the catalogue part of this Review, (in the class of *Miscellaneous*,) some account of a burlesque imitation of Mr. Godwin's work.

Art. V. *Sermons on practical and important Subjects.* With a Preface, particularly addressed to Candidates for Orders, and the younger Clergy. By Philip Henvill, Curate of Damerham South, Wilts. 8vo. pp. 350. 7s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1799.

If the present learned and excellent Bishop of Sarum, to whom these discoures are dedicated, and who is said to be their patron, had condescended to peruse them in manuscript, we are persuaded that we should have been spared some trouble and concern. The moral and religious tendency of sermons renders them a species of composition which we wish to treat with respect: but we have so many very excellent productions of this nature already published, that none should now be suffered to go to the press which do not possess considerable merit. By the long preface, which occupies a great part of this volume, and in which the author undertakes to *teach the teachers in Israel*, we were led to expect something in the ensuing discourses that would distinguish them from the ordinary specimens of pulpit eloquence. How cruelly has Mr. H. disappointed us! We say *cruelly*, because he has placed us in a situation in which it is painful to us to discharge our duty. It concerns us to characterize sermons, which doubtless were dictated by a good heart, and preached and published from a good motive, as defective compositions: yet this we must do in the present instance, unless we would forfeit our reputation with the public. There is no *lucidus ordo* in them; the ideas of the preacher seem always confused; and many pompous words are often put together to express very little meaning. The perusal of them reminded us of the remarks or memorandums of Yorick, (see Tristram Shandy,) on the backs of his own discourses; one of which we recollect was, "This sermon will suit any text, and this text any sermon." Mr. Henvill seems to have no conception of the necessity of confining his thoughts to his subject, nor of methodically arranging them. In his sermon on *Charity*, it would be impossible to ascertain from a great part of it what was the particular theme selected for discourse; and we can only learn this by looking at the top of the page. Who would suppose that the following was an extract from a sermon professedly treating *on charity?*

'To the young, the volatile, and the gay, not yet initiated in the paths of vice, I would wish in this place particularly to address myself!

'You are, my friends! just entering on the stage of life; and you may consider the world as an extensive theatre: and it will principally depend on your own conduct, whether the final conclusion will be tragical, or pleasant,—beyond all human comprehension. Virtue and vice, in the language of allegory, may be considered as two deities *contending* "*for the mastery*."—The one, arrayed in all the brightness of celestial majesty, conducting us to the "strait" though "narrow gate, which leadeth" to eternal "life."—The other, decked in the spoils of Eastern magnificence, and satiated with the enjoyment of voluptuous pleasures;—encouraging debaucheries of every kind,—countenancing idleness and immorality, and pointing to the "broad" and beaten "way" which leads, *apparently*, to the completion of happiness; but which, in fact, is the sure and inevitable road "to destruction."—How "vain and momentary are all sublunary enjoyments;"—how ill-founded the idea of their reality; and, above all, how ridiculous the pursuit, to "follow after things temporal, and finally to lose the things eternal!"

'The road to virtue, it must be confessed, is of steep and rugged ascent; and requires some degree of patience to render it accessible;—so numerous are the temptations to induce us to turn aside, and "go out of the way:" and so prevailing are our sensual appetites and inclinations, which are as so many stumbling-blocks to impede our progress.—Yet, if we have sufficient philosophy to withstand these temptations, and perseverance to surmount these obstacles, we shall at length arrive at that summit of uninterrupted bliss—the TEMPLE OF VIRTUE! And what a prospect does it present to our view! Romantic, imaginative ideas are apt to steal frequently on the mind, upon the most trifling and indifferent objects;—why then should we not indulge our fancy with similar reflections upon so delightful and important a topic? With what a serene and pleasant aspect, will things appear dispersed over the whole face of nature?

With what contempt may we look down on vice, whose paths indeed are smooth, level, and inviting, on the first approach; but, as the thoughtless and misguided traveller, along the devious and deceitful track, continues his unwary steps, brambles and mire, at length, obstruct the way, and terminate his mad career!—Arrived at the height of his ill-conceived enjoyments, and unable to pursue another course, he finds himself in a desolate and barren wilderness; so embarrassed and perplexed, as to render retreat impracticable.—*Past enormities* stare him in the face, and *future prospects* appear like a troubled ocean in his mind, without hopes of termination!—Forlorn must be the fate of such a wretch!—Unable to extricate himself from the horrors of a disturbed conscience, or "*flee from the wrath to come.*"—How different is such a state from that of VIRTUE?—where we may gather the rose, without the thorn; and from whence we may descry every object which can possibly contribute to our *real* and *permanent* interests in this life, and secure to us an *eternal happiness!*"

This is very good advice, and well suited to a sermon on the importance of religious education, or of apprizing youth of the snares and dangers of the world: but it is entirely out of its place in its present situation.—If, as we suspect, these discourses are the production of a juvenile writer, we may hope that practice and experience will enable him to improve: but, to this end, he must receive advice and correction with a determination to profit by them, and must strenuously assist them by his own efforts.

We find only seven sermons in this volume; the first 137 pages being occupied by a preface addressed to the candidates for orders, and the younger clergy. Here are some good hints, though not original, on the verbal inaccuracies of the common prayer, on the importance of endeavouring to read it well, on the propriety of explaining, in the sermon, such parts of the lessons as may require comments, &c.: but we do not apprehend that Mr. H.'s *divine right of tithes* will be admired in the present day;—of his reasoning on this subject, the following paragraph will afford an idea:

'However unfashionable the idea, I confess I am one of those, who believe that "THE ALL WISE" and bountiful, "DONOR of EVERY GOOD and PERFECT GIFT," is, and ought ever to be considered as the most proper Judge to *whom*, and for *what purpose*, those gifts are to be applied; and that any endeavour, or attempt, to counteract the designs of Providence, by disposing of them, *in any other manner*, is little, if any thing, short of sacrilege!'

At p. cxxx. Mr. Henvill inadvertently deifies Nature, and speaks of her as a goddess: '*she* is extremely capricious:' which is not correct in a Christian divine.

Art. VI. *Some Account of the Shrewsbury House of Industry.* Its Establishment, Regulations, and Bye-Laws: with Hints to those who may have similar Institutions in View. Fifth Edition. To which is now added, A large Introduction, containing General Observations on the present State of the Poor, and the defective System of the Poors' Laws. By I. Wood. 8vo. pp. 224. 3s. 6d. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1800.

When the first edition of Mr. Wood's account of the Shrewsbury House of Industry was published, we briefly expressed our opinion both of the institution and of the reporter. (See M. Rev. N. S. vol. v. p. 112.) Since that time, this work has passed through several editions; and it is now presented to us with an introduction prefixed, in which the difficult and perplexing subjects of the *state of the poor*, and the *system* which professes to be *for their relief*, are discussed. Such a discussion ought to be generally encouraged. Is it because we cannot or that we do not choose to see the truth, that our laws respecting the poor are so extremely defective; and that they are defective must be evident; since, though the amount of the legal provision is enormous (exceeding *three millions* a year), and still increasing, the wretchedness of the poor is not diminished, but seems to grow with the tax levied on their behalf. It is time to attempt to find out where the error lies, and to apply an adequate remedy.

The complete abolition of the present establishment no one would recommend: but when it is confessed that it would not be adviseable to institute a similar national provision in a country in which none such before existed, it is an acknowlegement that we have outstepped in it the dictates of wisdom. Do we not, (as we lately remarked,) by the present system, take the poor too much out of their own hands; and, by not adjusting the price of labour to the necessaries of life, do we not force them to receive in the form of charity, that to which they are intitled on the principles of equity? If justice were done to them in this respect, would not much trouble be saved? If they were rendered humbly independent*, would they not take care of themselves; and feed and clothe themselves at much less expence than will be necessary to feed and clothe them in any other way? We speak of the poor in general.

No doubt, a distinction must be made between the cottage or country *poor*, and those who come under the description of poor in cities and large towns. In these receptacles of vice and profligacy, their condition is often deplorable. Both in body and mind, they are objects of extreme commiseration; and the first idea that occurs to the philanthropist is, Let them be taken where both can be purified. The erection of *Houses of Industry* is a thought which then presents itself; and in every district it may be advisable to have such an institution, provided that its regulations be proper, and that the strictest superintendance be exercised: but enormous establishments of this kind, placed every where throughout the kingdom, are by no means either necessary or prudent. *Annual overseers*, according to the present system, are inadequate to regulate and manage them; and though gentlemen may at first submit to the toil and trouble, it is to be feared that before long they will grow tired, and that the House of Industry will become a house of idleness and profligacy. Were justice done to the poor when they are young, by then restraining all idleness and vice among them; were they encouraged, as they advance in years, in habits of sobriety and religion; were many of our pot houses and dram-drinking places suppressed as nuisances both in towns and villages; and were the poor, after having received a fair price for their labour, instructed and assisted in the prudent expenditure of their earnings; parishes would be soon exonerated from a great proportion of their burdens, the poor in general would be more satisfied, and no *large* houses would be necessary for their reception.

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* At p. 72 of the introduction, Mr. Wood admits that, if that independent spirit of the poor, which prevents them from trusting to parochial aid, be broken and subdued by their being forced into a general receptacle of poverty, and compelled to class among common paupers, this inestimable principle will presently disappear.

Mendicity should not be tolerated; drunkenness should not go unpunished; nor should idleness, under the semblance and dress of misery, be allowed to impose on credulous charity. So far a *House of Industry* will be of use, as it will annihilate all plea for idleness; and if the poor who *can* work *must* work, either for themselves or the public, we know which they will prefer.

We cannot, however, adopt all Mr. Wood's sentiments in favour of these receptacles. Certainly the poor may be more comfortable in them, than they can be in crouded and miserable dwellings of their own: but then, may it not be asked, would not the sum expended on the large house build a number of cottages which should *not* be *miserable*; and would not the subsequent trouble and expence be less?

Mr. Wood very ably replies to several objections which have been urged against houses of industry, and we recommend his remarks to the serious attention of the public: but we rather incline to that system which preserves to the poor their little independence and individuality, and which shall interest them in the maintenance of order. In this view, *Friendly* Societies may be preferable to houses of industry; and if they could be universally established, so as to include both rich and poor, and if every parish according to its population were divided into a certain number of these societies, under wise regulations, the poor would probably be better assisted than at present; the sum paid by the rich members would be less than the amount of the poor's rates; the rich would be more acquainted with the state of the poor; and the poor would be more regular through the superintendance of the rich.

Something, it is evident, ought farther to be done in behalf of the poor, and to ease the parochial burdens. According to Mr. Wood, Houses of Industry in populous districts *may* be attended with a saving to the public, and at the same time administer to the moral improvement and comfort of the poor. Under the exertions of so intelligent and public-spirited a man as himself, his doctrine can scarcely fail of being verified: but, when the superintendants and governors of these institutions are so repeatedly told that '*a constant unremitting attention will ever remain necessary*,' we despair of hearing, *in general*, of those happy consequences which he so energetically describes.

Art. VII. *Selections from the Correspondence of General Washington and James Anderson, LL. D. F. R. S. F. A. S. E.* &c. &c. In which the Causes of the present Scarcity are fully investigated. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Cumming, Holborn Hill. 1800.

In a correspondence with the late General Washington, who would look for a discussion connected with the subject of the recent scarcity in Great Britain? Yet here do we find one, more able than any which it has yet been our good fortune to peruse. We deem it of such importance, and we think that so much attention is due to the experience and reputation of Dr. Anderson, that we shall make copious extracts from it; imagining that we render service to our country by contributing, as far as we have power, to its publicity.—We find only one letter from General Washington; and the last and longest from Dr. A. never reached the justly celebrated American, of whose lamented death the Doctor received intelligence, when on the point of transmitting it.

In a letter from Dr. Anderson, containing very original observations on the present contest between Great Britain and France, the following reflections occur; which, though not designed for that purpose, form a very apt introduction to the subjects canvassed in the principal letter on the scarcity.

'To such persons as believe that the stability of states, and the happiness of a people, are to be measured exactly by the amount of their wealth, and the extent of their foreign trade and manufactures, facts which prove the prosperity of Great Britain in this respect will be deemed of the most soothing nature; but to me they convey not any such idea. Nations, like individuals, have not their happiness augmented in proportion to the increase of their riches. They generally act with much more propriety when they are in moderate circumstances, than when superabounding in wealth. Power engenders pride, haughtiness, and a most intolerable self-sufficiency; this disgusts those with whom they must have dealings, and encourages rivals. It creates enemies at the same time; enemies, whose ill-will is only displayed at the first in secret; but by and by they become open and declared as such. Wars of course follow, and many evils which it would be painful to enumerate. These evils will be, to you, very obvious, and might have been (or rather may be) foreseen by our rulers, whose duty it should have been to counteract their influence. This, I am sorry to say, has not been done. Owing to the greater profits that are to be made in trade or manufactures than in agriculture, at the same time that such persons are more independent of others, and at greater liberty to act as occasion may require, young men of spirit and enterprise naturally prefer the first, and neglect the last. Fiscal regulations might easily be adopted to counteract in some measure this evil; but this has not been attended to. Some late taxes, particularly the salt tax and the income tax, have a direct contrary effect; for they press much more heavily on country gentlemen and farmers, than on those who are engaged in trade and manufactures: bad is thus made worse, and a spirit of turbulence and insubordination is disseminated among the lower orders of society, which must break out on the first check that business, in their particular line, experiences; and this must give rise to a system of coercive government that is only productive of general misery, and individual distress; not to mention the discontents that are the never-failing attendants on the occasional recurrence of years of scarcity, which are inevitable where this system of economy is adhered to.

'None of these effects would have been experienced if the less brilliant but more steady operations of agriculture had been duly cherished and encouraged. There would have been no difficulty in finding other sources of productive taxes here, had they been sought for; but it too often happens in financial arrangements, that men overlook the only *certain* means of augmenting the revenue, viz. that of adopting measures to promote the health of the body politic in all its members; and, instead of supplying the goose with plenty of nourishing food to make her with certainty lay abundance of golden eggs for many years to come, in their eagerness to get all the eggs at once, they kill the goose herself, and thus cut off the source of that future supply which would have been certain.'

From respect for a valuable and venerable body; from a cordial admission of its sacred claims, founded on its great services to society, and of its rights guaranteed by the public faith; and from personal regard for numerous individuals who belong to it; we should be the *first to protest* against schemes which were calculated to rob and degrade our clergy: but, without meaning to offer any offence, or to countenance any injury to that respectable and powerful profession, we may freely avow it as our firm opinion, that it is time to look into the subject of tythe, with the view of substituting for it some other mode of supporting the clergy; or of regulating it, so that it shall be no longer a check on agricultural improvement. Recent events at home, the repeated dearths which have occurred of late years, and the new situation of things in this respect, in the parts of Europe most near to us, loudly call for inquiry and revisal.

It is well known that, in early times, capital and labour were of little consideration in agriculture; tythe then might be, and actually was considered and stated to be, a proportion of the produce of the earth: but now, when capital and labour are of so much moment in this great concern, the world finds itself in circumstances totally different from those in which it was when tythe was first established among Christian nations. A measure, therefore, which at that period might have been wise and unobjectionable, is become, by changes in the state of human affairs, vexatious to the clergy, oppressive to the cultivator, and pernicious to the general interests of the community. Let us attend to what Dr. Anderson advances on this subject:

> 'In the first place, the expence of *cultivating* land, under certain circumstances, is enormous; so that, unless it be in very particular situations, the operator never can be reimbursed: but, instead of adopting such arrangements as to encourage the farmer to go forward in cultivating the soil, he is, in this country, subjected to one very heavy tax in particular, that must of necessity check his operations to an astonishing degree. *He is liable to have a tenth part of the whole crop carried away; not a tenth of the* free *produce after deducting expences, but one tenth of the* gross *produce, even if the whole of that produce should not be sufficient to pay one half of the expence actually incurred: and I have known land cultivated, and with profit, where the whole of the crop for the first year would not be equal in value to the tenth part of the money actually expended on the land before that crop could be obtained from it. Thus are both his capital and his industry highly taxed—whereas if he shall sit still and do nothing to his land, he is not obliged to pay one tenth of the simple produce which has spontaneously sprung up without any expence incurred by him, but in many cases less than one fortieth part of it.* Can any thing, I ask, be more perfectly caculated to arrest the arm of industry in agriculture, and check the production of corn, than this system?'

In opposition to the great authority of Dr. A. Smith, Dr. Anderson is a friend to the system of bounties on the exportation of corn. He refers us to one of his former publications, which met with very particular attention from the distinguished person whose doctrines it controverted. In the present tract, he thus states his views of this point:

'Instead of correcting the former defects, and adopting remedies that the circumstances of the case called for; which was obviously an augmentation rather than a diminution of the bounty, under certain circumstances, our legislators thought proper to pursue a course directly the reverse of this; and, without formally abolishing the bounty, they virtually did so, by so modifying it as that it could by no means answer those purposes, in regard to the farmer, for which it was originally granted: no corn, therefore, could be then reared by him for the purpose of exportation in good years; of course, when a bad season occurred, the deficiency became very great; the prices rose, and recourse must be had to importation from abroad to a great amount, for the support of our own people. Thus it has happened, that without any material change in the physical state of this universe, we have experienced a woful change in the state of our crops; and, instead of *ex*-porting corn to the amount in some years of not much less than one million and a half of quarters, which brought in better than two millions sterling per annum, the quantity im-ported soon came to exceed the exports; *which has gradually increased till the present moment, when the balance of imports beyond exports amount to nearly one million of quarters, the value of which cannot be less than four millions sterling per annum.*'

The following facts in political economy are too important to be neglected:

'No description of land that is fit for tillage can produce so much of human sustenance when in grass as when in corn; but the difference in some cases is greater than in others. In very rich land this difference is less than in that of an inferior quality. In the richest land in this island, perhaps the difference can in no case be brought lower than in the proportion of three to one; that is to say, an acre of such land would afford three times at least the quantity of human food while under culture that it could do while in grass. In land of a middling quality the difference will be nearly as ten to one. And if land of a very bad quality be properly improved, and brought to the highest degree of productiveness of which it is susceptible, it will be more than as one hundred to one.'

The influence of agriculture on population is thus illustrated:

'In the time of the Moors, that part of Spain which was possessed by the Mahometans, who were an industrious and agricultural people, swarmed with inhabitants to an astonishing degree, and possessed a luxuriant fertility unequalled at that time perhaps in any part of Europe. Even in the days of Ferdinand and Isabella, when the industry of these people had been greatly repressed, and their numbers curtailed by the long continued ravages of war, that country still contained a population of TWENTY-FIVE MILLIONS of people, who found there abundance of food and to spare. At present the population of Spain does not exceed *eight millions*, and the deterioration that has followed the abandonment of agriculture as a favourite pursuit, is such, that even those *few* inhabitants are only able to draw from it a scanty subsistence, which is scarcely sufficient to furnish them the bare necessaries of life.'

The following remarks also deserve attention:

'Other circumstances still have a powerful tendency to repress the active operations of agricultural improvements in England, whose influence ought not to be overlooked on the present occasion. As the radical melioration of land is a troublesome and expensive operation, and the returns of that expence can only be expected in the course of many years, no man can engage with spirit and effect in such an enterprise without a certainty of his being permitted to retain the possession of such land for a sufficient length of time to indemnify himself fully for the expence and risk he must incur by such exertions. So far, however, is this inducement to agricultural exertion from being commonly proffered to tenants, that a lease of a proper length for this purpose is altogether unknown; and a great part of the land in this kingdom is farmed without any lease at all, merely upon a precarious tenure from year to year. And, what appears to be still more wonderful, this precarious tenure seems to give nearly as little uneasiness to the tenant, as it proves satisfactory to the landlord. As the interest of both the parties is evidently hurt by this arrangement, though the welfare of the public is still more essentially injured by it, I was greatly at a loss for some time to account for this seeming apathy in these two classes of men to their own interest. Nor was it till after a very minute examination of the internal state of this country that it became manifest. As it may prove satisfactory to you to develope these particulars, I shall venture briefly to state the prominent circumstances that effect it.

'The great object of men of extensive property in this country is to have parliamentary interest; they therefore exert themselves as much as possible to have retainers and dependents who may support that interest at elections for members to parliament. One great source of such influence originates with farmers, many of whom have votes themselves; and they have still a wider influence in consequence of the marriages of their daughters, &c. into the families of voters in boroughs, and other ways. These being in general rather of less respectability than the farmer, and having expectances from him at his death, are much swayed by him. And as he himself cannot be considered as a free man so long as he depends, in a great measure, upon the will of his lord for a comfortable subsistence, these farmers are found to be the most zealous and steady supporters they have. This, together with the natural desire that all men feel to exercise sway over others, especially where, as in this case, it does not appear to give much pain to those who submit to it, is a principal reason why gentlemen of landed property in general have a predilection for short leases, or tenants at will, wherever the custom of the country countenances it.

'I found more difficulty in satisfying myself about the indifference of the tenants on this head; but a residence for some time in England hand has enabled me to discover the causes of that also. It would take up too much room to display the whole; I shall only just touch upon the principal of them. I have already taken notice of the importance of the *poor's-rates* here in regard to the farmer, and the necessity of adverting to them when he covenants for a lease. By the farmer, the poor's-rates can be viewed in no other light than as rent. To him it is the same thing whether he pays the whole of his rent to the landlord, or a part of it to him and another portion of it to the poor; but there is this difference to him between these two—that the landlord's rent is a stipulated, fixed sum, and the other variable. When he enters into a lease for a term of years, then, though he contracts to pay only a stipulated sum annually to the landlord, he binds himself at the same time, however, also to pay another sum annually to the poor, which is perfectly unfixed; and concerning the amount of which at a distant period, he cannot form the most distant conjecture. His land we shall suppose at the beginning of his lease to be worth twenty-five shillings per acre, and that the poor's-rates are then at five shillings in the pound; he is therefore able to pay the landlord twenty shillings rent, and no more. But as he knows the poor's-rates are advancing from year to year, and he can set no bounds to the extent of that advance, he is afraid to enter into engagements for a long term of years lest he should thus bind himself to pay more than the land is worth. Should it rise to ten, fifteen, twenty, or twenty-five shillings in the pound, as it is in some places, he must be undone; for supposing he has a hundred acres, this, at twenty-five shillings, is 125 *l.* per annum, which is, by supposition, the full value of his land; but should he be obliged to pay 225 *l.* or 200 *l.* or 175 *l.* or even 150 *l.* he would be undone. Contemplating these things he hesitates, and is better pleased to have it in his power to give up his lease when he finds he can no longer hold it with profit, than to take the risk of such a precarious burthen.'

We fear that the succeeding brief statement, which must excite melancholy reflections in every considerate mind, is too well-founded:

'There was a time while this country had some pretensions to rank as an agricultural nation, that the description of men called *country gentlemen* and *yeomen*, bore a distinguished share of respectability in the state, and served, by the simplicity of their manners, the sobriety of their conduct, and the soundness of their judgment, to moderate excesses in government, and to give a kind of stability to the empire. They lived at home respected, and when they took a side in the affairs of government, which was seldom, unless to prevent evident abuses in power, they carried a weight with them that made them be attended to. This arrangement of things we can now only contemplate as one of those that are *past*.'

It was our wish to quote some judicious observations on the income tax, in which the author points out its evil influence on agriculture, by depressing and ultimately annihilating *small land owners*: but they are too extensive for our limits. Indeed, the importance of the matter contained in this tract has already induced us to assign to it a space in our work which is disproportionate to its size. We shall be amply recompensed, however, if we should thus occasion its merits to be more generally known; and, by rousing the public attention, induce the author to pursue a subject which is so momentous to society, and which he is so well qualified to discuss.

Art. VIII. *Elements of Christian Theology:* containing, Proofs of the Authenticity and Inspiration of the Holy Scriptures; a Summary of the History of the Jews; a brief Statement of the Contents of the several Books of the Old and New Testaments; a short Account of the English Translations of the Bible and of the Liturgy of the Church of England; and a Scriptural Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles of Religion. By George Pretyman, D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Lincoln. Designed principally for the Use of young Students in Divinity. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 550 in each. 14s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

It is a fact well known and generally lamented, that theological learning does not receive sufficient attention in our universities; and the nation must look to the reverend guardians of our established religion, for the application of a proper remedy to an evil so prevalent and serious. The Bishop of Lincoln has shewn a very laudable zeal in this necessary work, by the publication of the volumes now before us; which, as he observes in his dedication to Mr. Pitt, may be accepted as a proof of his anxiety to fulfil, as far as he is able, the important duties of his station; and which have taken their rise from the Bishop's observation of a deficiency in professional knowlege among candidates for holy orders.

Our design is by no means that of depreciating the real merits of this respectable prelate, when we observe that there are some evidences of inaccuracy and deficiency in this performance, as he himself modestly conjectures. His enumeration (in the preface) of books for the library of the theological student will be very acceptable to young clergymen; who (as we have had frequent opportunities of knowing and lamenting,) often quit the university ignorant of the books which they ought to purchase and peruse as divines: yet it is certainly imperfect. We were surprized that Cruden's *Concordance*, Jones *on the Canon*, Doddridge's *Lectures*, Lowth's *Prælectiones*, Lowman's *Civil Government of the Hebrews*, Jortin's *Remarks on Ecclesiastical History*, and particularly Harmer's *Observations*, (which are singularly illustrative of scripture,) with many others, should be omitted; and although it is certain that the evidences of Christianity rest on those of Judaism, and Dr. Pretyman undertakes

takes to initiate the student in a knowlege of the O. T. yet no Hebrew lexicon, nor Hebrew concordance, nor *Lyra prophetica*, is recommended. In a subsequent edition, no doubt, these defects will be supplied; as the Bishop, with a candour that is highly honourable, has promised that 'he shall very readily attend to any suggestion or advice which he may receive, whether it relates to error or omission.'—We deem the study of *sacred criticism* not only very curious and amusing, but super-eminently instructive; and we therefore highly applaud the object which Dr. P. has in view in this undertaking, namely, 'to give a taste for theological pursuits' to the country clergyman; who often, through ignorance of this gratification, abandons himself to the mere sports of the field, or to other trifling and inconsistent amusements. None of the Bishop's readers more ardently wish him success than we do; and we are sorry if we cannot, in every instance, speak as highly of the execution as of the object and design of the present work: to a more particular examination of which we now proceed.

The subject is divided into *three* parts, relating to the *Old Testament*, the *New Testament*, and the *English Establishment*.'

Part I. is divided into *four* chapters; in the *first* of which the author treats on the *authenticity* and *inspiration* of the books of the Old Testament. As the work is professedly a compilation, we need scarcely say that the arguments here brought forwards are not new: but we incline to think that the R. R. writer might, with propriety and advantage, have bestowed more attention in repelling important or insidious objections. In p. 5, we meet with the following assertion: 'It appears from Deuteronomy, that the Book of the Law, that is, the whole Pentateuch, written by the hand of Moses, was by his command deposited in the tabernacle, not long before his death.'—In proof of this, Deut. xxxi. 26. is quoted: but from that verse it will be difficult to shew that the law there said to be written by Moses, and placed in the ark by his order, was any other law than the *Deuteronomy itself*[*]; much more that it contained the whole Pentateuch.

The following assertions also seem to require support; that the other sacred books, which were written before the building of the temple, were consigned to the same sanctuary, as they were successively produced;—and that, when Solomon finished the temple, he directed that these books should be removed into it; and also that the future compositions of inspired men should be secured in the same holy place. Where can we find these facts in the Bible? For a part of them, the

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[*] The words are "take *this* book of the law."

Bishop quotes the credulous Epiphanius: but even the credulous Epiphanius does not state such facts. He tells us, indeed, at the conclusion of the chapter here quoted, that certain books were *not* deposited in the ARON, or ark of the covenant: but he says nothing about Solomon, and his pretended *directions*. His words, speaking of two of the apocryphal books, are *και ἅυται χρησιμοι μεν εισι και ωφελιμοι, αλλ' εις αριθμον ρητων ουκ αναφερονται· διο δε ουτε εν τω της διαθηκης κιβωτῳ. Peri metron*. c. 4. Though this passage may imply that certain sacred books were deposited in the ark, by particularly excepting some that were not, it does not follow, as a necessary inference, that all and each of the books in our present canon were there; nor that 'the respective works of *Jonah*, *Amos*, *Hosea*, *Joel*, *Nahum*, *Zephaniah*, *Jeremiah*, (why is *Isaiah* omitted?) *Habakkuk*, and *Obadiah*, all of whom flourished before the Babylonish captivity, were regularly deposited in the temple.'—In this age of inquiry and scepticism, it is dangerous to faith to erect conclusions on insufficient premises.

We shall now make a considerable extract from the continuation of this argument; without comment or critique:

'Whether these manuscripts perished in the flames, when the temple was burnt by Nebuchadnezzar, we are not informed. But as the burning of the Scriptures is not lamented by any of the contemporary or succeeding prophets, and as the other treasures of the temple were preserved and set apart as sacred by Nebuchadnezzar, it is probable that these autographs also were saved; and more especially, as it does not appear that Nebuchadnezzar had any particular enmity against the religion of the Jews. If however the original books were destroyed with the temple, it is certain that there were at that time numerous copies of them; and we cannot doubt but some of them were carried by the Jews to Babylon, and that others were left in Judea. The Holy Scriptures were too much reverenced, and too much dispersed, to make it credible that all the copies were lost or destroyed; and indeed we find Daniel, when in captivity [*], referring to the book of the law as then existing; and soon after the captivity, Ezra not only read and explained the law to the people [†], but he restored the public worship and the sacrifices according to the Mosaic ritual; and therefore there must have been at that time, at least a correct copy of the law; for it is impossible to believe that he would have attempted the re-establishment of a church, in which the most minute observance of the rites and ceremonies prescribed by Moses was not only absolutely necessary for the acceptable performance of divine worship, but the slightest deviation from which was considered as sacrilege or abomination, unless he had been in actual possession either of the original manuscript of the law, or of a copy so well authenticated as to leave no doubt of its accuracy in the minds of the people.

'[*] Dan. c. 9. ver. 11 and 13.'

'[†] Nehem. c. 8. v. 1.'

'There is an uncontradicted tradition in the Jewish church, that about fifty years after the temple was rebuilt, Ezra, in conjunction with the great synagogue, made a collection of the sacred writings, which had been increased, since the Jews were carried into captivity, by the Lamentations of Jeremiah, and the prophecies of Ezekiel, of Daniel, Haggai, and Zechariah; and as Ezra was himself inspired, we may rest assured, that whatever received his sanction was authentic. To this genuine collection, which, according to former custom, was placed in the temple, were afterwards annexed the sacred compositions of Ezra himself, as well as those of Nehemiah and Malachi, which were written after the death of Ezra. This addition, which was probably made by Simon the Just, the last of the great synagogue, compleated the canon of the Old Testament; for after Malachi no prophet arose till the time of John the Baptist, who, as it were, connected the two covenants, and of whom Malachi foretold, that he should precede "the great day of the Lord *," that is, the coming of the Messiah. It cannot now be ascertained, whether Ezra's copy of the Scriptures was destroyed by Antiochus Epiphanes, when he pillaged the temple; nor is it material, since we know that Judas Maccabæus repaired the temple, and replaced every thing requisite for the performance of divine worship, which included a correct, if not Ezra's own, copy of the Scriptures. This copy, whether Ezra's or not, remained in the temple till Jerusalem was taken by Titus, and it was then carried in triumph to Rome, and laid up with the purple veil in the royal palace of Vespasian †.

'Thus, while the Jewish polity continued, and nearly 500 years after the time of Ezra, a complete and faultless copy of the Hebrew canon was kept in the temple ‡ at Jerusalem, with which all others might be compared. And it ought to be observed, that although Christ frequently reproved the rulers and teachers of the Jews for their erroneous and false doctrines, yet he never accused them of any corruption in their written law, or other sacred books: and St. Paul reckons among the privileges of the Jews, that to them "were committed the oracles of God ||," without insinuating that they had been unfaithful to their trust. After the final destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans, there was no established standard of the Hebrew Scriptures; but from that time, the dispersion of the Jews into all countries, and the numerous converts to Christianity, became a double security for the preservation of a volume held equally sacred by Jews and Christians, and to which both constantly referred as to the written word of God. They differed in the interpretation of these books, but never disputed the validity of the text in any material point.'

This is a fair specimen of the R. R. author's style, and of the manner in which he usually discusses his subject,—of which we return to the summary.—After all that he has already

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'* Mal. c. 4. v. 5.' '† Joseph. de Bell. Jud. lib. 7. cap. 5.' '‡ Josephus mentions the Scriptures deposited in the temple. Ant. Jud. lib. 3. cap. 1. and lib. 5. cap. 1.' '|| Rom. c. 3. v. 2.'

already said on the authenticity and inspiration of the Old Testament, he thinks that the most decisive proof of both is derived from the New: for which he quotes Luke, i. 70. and xxiv. 44. —Mark, vii. 13.—1 Tim. iii. 15.—2 Peter, i. 21.—'But, in addition to these passages, (his Lordship says,) which refer to the ancient Scriptures collectively, we may observe that there is scarcely a book in the O. T. which is not repeatedly quoted in the New as of divine authority.'

At p. 21. the R. R. author thus explains what he means by *inspiration*.

'When it is said that Scripture is divinely inspired, it is not to be understood that God suggested every word, or dictated every expression. It appears from the different styles in which the books are written, and from the different manner in which the same events are related and predicted by different authors, that the sacred penmen were permitted to write as their several tempers, understandings, and habits of life, directed; and that the knowledge communicated to them by Inspiration was applied to the subject of their writings in the same manner as any knowledge acquired by ordinary means. Nor is it to be supposed that they were even thus inspired in every fact which they related, or in every precept which they delivered. They were left to the common use of their faculties, and did not upon every occasion stand in need of supernatural communication; but whenever, and as far as divine assistance was necessary, it was always afforded. In different parts of Scripture we perceive that there were different sorts and degrees of Inspiration: God enabled Moses to give an account of the creation of the world; he enabled Joshua to record with exactness the settlement of the Israelites in the land of Canaan; he enabled David to mingle prophetic information with the varied effusions of gratitude, contrition, and piety; he enabled Solomon to deliver wise instructions for the regulation of human life; he enabled Isaiah to deliver predictions concerning the future Saviour of mankind, and Ezra to collect the sacred Scriptures into one authentic volume; "but all these worketh that one and the self-same Spirit, dividing to every man severally as he will *." In some cases, Inspiration only produced correctness and accuracy in relating past occurrences, or in reciting the words of others; in other cases it communicated ideas not only new and unknown before, but infinitely beyond the reach of unassisted human intellect; and sometimes inspired prophets delivered predictions for the use of future ages, which they did not themselves comprehend, and which cannot be fully understood till they are accomplished. But whatever distinctions we may make with respect to the sorts, degrees, or modes of Inspiration, we may rest assured that there is one property which belongs to every inspired writing, namely, that it is free from error—I mean material error; and this property must be considered as extending to the whole of each of those writings, of which a part only is inspired; for we cannot suppose that God would suffer any such errors, as might tend to

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'* 1 Cor. c. 12. v. 11.'

mislead our faith or pervert our practice, to be mixed with those truths, which he himself has mercifully revealed to his rational creatures as the means of their eternal salvation. In this restricted sense it may be asserted, that the sacred writers always wrote under the influence, or guidance, or care of the Holy Spirit, which sufficiently establishes the truth and divine authority of all Scripture.'

Is not this a system of pure suppositions; and of suppositions that militate against the very system which they are designed to uphold? There was a time when such concessions would have been deemed formal heresy; and, indeed, were we to write on *Inspiration*, we should consider them as so many home *argumenta ad homines*, against its defenders. We suspect that the Bishop himself was sometimes sensible of their weakness. In p. 27. he puts this question: 'By what rule are we to distinguish the *inspired* from the *uninspired* part of these books? To which he answers, that 'no general rule can be presented for that purpose: nor is it necessary that we should be able to make any such discrimination. It is enough for us *to know* that every writer of the O. T. was inspired, and that the whole of the history it contains, *without any exception or reserve*, is true.'—*To know* all this would certainly be *enough* for us: but all knowlege must arise from *evidence* or *conviction*, not from hypothetical *postulates*, or supposed *congruencies*.

The Bishop proceeds to adduce the usual arguments to prove the genuineness of the Pentateuch, that is to say, that it was written by Moses: but we question whether all the *external* testimonies, here accumulated for that purpose, will in the judgment of unbiassed critics weigh down the *internal* evidence for the contrary opinion. That some parts of the Pentateuch *were not* written, and *could not* be written, by Moses, is now generally allowed; and these parts are called *interpolations* by some posterior *inspired* penman: but this is *gratis dictum*; and we fear that no cogent proof can be produced to support the hypothesis. If some parts were confessedly not written by Moses, why might not other parts be in the same predicament; and who will be bold enough to make the discrimination? That Moses wrote and delivered laws to the Hebrews, no one, we believe, will deny: but many have denied that he wrote the present Pentateuch; and have made objections to the contrary opinion which have not been satisfactorily answered.

The second chapter treats of the contents of the several books of the O. T.—Then follows, in ch. iii. an abridgment of the Old Testament history; with a continuation of the history of the Jews, to the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.—Ch. iv. treats on the Jewish sects, and is very short.

We then come to Part II. of which ch. i. treats of the *canon* of the N. T. and of the *inspiration* of the books contained in it.—The contents of ch. ii. are *The history of St. Matthew—the genuineness of his gospel—its date—the language in which it was written—observations.* In the same order, we have the history, &c. of the other three Evangelists, in as many short separate chapters.

Chapter vi. gives an account of *the Acts of the Apostles*, in only three pages. Ch. vii. and the sixteen following relate to St. Paul and his writings. The ten remaining chapters are devoted to the Catholic Epistles and the Book of Revelation; with a very brief abridgment of the New Testament history. This closes the first volume.

The chief purpose of Vol. II. Part iii. is to explain and defend the *thirty-nine* articles: but the exposition is prefaced by a short historical account of the English translations of the Bible, and of the Liturgy *. The articles are first given, altogether, in Latin; and then each of them is printed separately in English, before its respective explanation. Our limits permit us to attend only to a few.

The doctrine of the Trinity included in Art. I. is discussed and defended at considerable length. We shall not enter into the arguments: but we must observe that there is as much candour as judgment displayed by the Bishop in abandoning the contested passage in 1 John v. 7. to its fate. 'It would be improper (says he in a note, p. 90) to produce a doubtful text in support of so important a doctrine as that of the Trinity: but I must own, that after an attentive consideration of the controversy relative to that passage, I am convinced that it is *spurious*.'

The R. R. commentator also owns that 'the word Trinity does not occur in Scripture, nor do we find it in any of the early confessions of faith: but (he adds) this is no argument against the doctrine itself, since we learn from the fathers of the three first centuries, that the divinity of the Son and of the Holy Ghost was, from the days of the Apostles, acknowledged by the catholic church, and that those who maintained a contrary opinion were considered as heretics.' Is not this abandoning the protestant rule of faith, and arguing precisely on popish principles?

Above fifty pages are employed in explaining the second article, which relates to the sonship, sufferings, and death of Jesus Christ. This is the most laboured part of the work, and contains nearly all the arguments that have been advanced to support the absolute divinity of Christ:—but still no objections are answered.

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* To those who wish to have a clear concise historical account of the liturgy, we would recommend the *Introduction* to Shepherd's *Elucidation of the Morning and Evening Prayer.*

On article 8th we observe, with pleasure, that the Right Reverend author disapproves the damnatory clauses in the Athanasian creed.

> 'Great objection (says he, p. 219,) has been made to the clauses of this creed, which denounce eternal damnation against those who do not believe the catholic faith, as here stated; and it certainly is to be lamented that assertions of so peremptory a nature, unexplained and unqualified, should have been used in any human composition.'—Again, p. 222, 'I am ready to acknowledge that, in my judgment, notwithstanding the authority of former times, our church would have acted more wisely and more consistently with its general principles of mildness and toleration, if it had not adopted the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian creed. Though I firmly believe that the doctrines themselves of this creed are all founded in Scripture, I cannot but conceive it to be both unnecessary and presumptuous to say, That "*except every one do keep them whole and undefiled, without doubt he shall perish everlastingly.*"

This reprobation reminds us of Archbishop Tillotson's wish, respecting the whole creed, "that the church were well rid of it." While these clauses remain in it, we trust that the Bishop of Lincoln will never enforce its being read; and that he will think that something less should be required at ordination, than an unqualified "*assent and consent to all things and every thing.*"

On the articles of *Original sin,—Free will,—Good Works,—Justification,—Works of supererogation,—Christ alone without sin,—Predestination, and Election, &c.* the Bishop endeavours to prove that the doctrine of the English church is different from that of Geneva.

The defence of art. 18th is not in our judgment very strong and successful; and the article itself is deeply tinctured with uncharitableness.

In the Bishop's commentary on art. 22. are some just remarks, mixed with inaccuracies, and even with some (we doubt not, involuntary) misrepresentations. The popish doctrines concerning purgatory, pardons, worshipping, and adoration of images and relics, are not exactly what they are here said to be; and a note at p. 355. contains an assertion which we apprehend the catholics will term a manifest calumny; although it has been often repeated by ill-informed protestant writers.

In explaining a part of art. 23. the Bishop allows that the difference of bishops from priests is 'a point which can be decided only by the testimony of antient ecclesiastical writers.'

—Not

All persons, when they enter into holy orders, or are admitted to any ecclesiastical cure or benefice, are required by law to subscribe these articles, with a design that those, who are employed in the ministry of our established church, whether as curates or incumbents, should unfeignedly believe the truth of the doctrines which they contain. "The avoiding of diversities of opinion, and the establishing of consent touching true religion," was the professed object of these articles; and consequently they lose their effect, if they do not produce a general agreement among such as subscribe them. "I do willingly and *ex animo* subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England," is the indispensable form of subscription; and therefore it behoves every one, before he offers himself a candidate for holy orders, to peruse carefully the articles of our church, and to compare them with the written word of God. If, upon mature examination, he believes them to be authorized by Scripture, he may conscientiously subscribe them; but if, on the contrary, he thinks that he sees reason to dissent from any of the doctrines asserted in them, no hope of emolument or honour, no dread of inconvenience or disappointment, should induce him to express his solemn assent to propositions which in fact he does not believe. It is not indeed necessary that he should approve every word or expression, but he ought to believe all the fundamental doctrines, of the articles; all those tenets in which our church differs from other churches, or from other sects of Christians. He ought to feel that he can from his own conviction maintain the purity of our established religion, and sincerely and zealously enforce those points of faith and practice, which our church declares to be essential to salvation. This appears to me the only just ground of conscientious subscription to the articles; and let it be ever remembered, that in a business of this serious and important nature, no species whatever of evasion, subterfuge, or reserve is to be allowed, or can be practised, without imminent danger of incurring the wrath of God. The articles are to be subscribed in their plain and obvious sense, and assent is to be given to them simply and unequivocally. Thus only can a person offer himself at the table of the Lord as his minister with safety; thus only can he expect to receive the divine blessing upon that course of life to which he then solemnly devotes himself.'

Some animadversions on these volumes have appeared in two or three pamphlets, which we shall notice in another Number of our Review.

Art. IX. *The Farmer's Boy;* a Rural Poem, in Four Books. By Robert Bloomfield. With Ornaments engraved in Wood by Anderson. 8vo. pp. 118. 5s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

This poem is ushered into the world under the obstetric auspices of the ingenious Mr. Capel Lofft, but it is the production of a journeyman shoemaker, who was himself originally destined to be a *Farmer's Boy*. The preface contains some particulars of his life, communicated by his brother to Mr. Lofft; whence it appears that the only literary instructions which he ever had he received from his mother in reading, and from a country schoolmaster in writing, for the space of two or three months. He was afterward sent to London, to his brother, in order to learn to make shoes; and there he continued till, in consequence of the dispute between the journeymen and master shoemakers, in 1784, he returned into the country to his old master, Mr. Austin: who, as the brother says,

" Kindly bade him take his house for his home till he could return to me. And here, with his mind glowing with the fine Descriptions of rural scenery which he found in THOMSON'S SEASONS, he again retraced the very fields where first he began to think. Here, free from the smoke, the noise, and the contention of the City, he imbibed that Love of rural Simplicity and rural Innocence, which fitted him, in a great degree, to be the writer of such a thing as *the Farmer's Boy.*"

" Here he lived two Months :....at length, as the dispute in the trade still remained undecided, Mr. DUDBRIDGE offered to take *Robert* Apprentice, to secure him, at all events, from any consequences of the Litigation."

' He was bound by Mr. *Ingram*, of *Bell-alley*, to Mr. *John Dudbridge*. His Brother *George* paid five shillings for *Robert*, by way of form, as a premium. Dudbridge was their Landlord, and a *Freeman* of the *City of London*. He acted most honourably, and took no advantage of the power which the Indentures gave him. *George Bloomfield* staid with *Robert* till he found he could work as expertly as his self.

' Mr. GEORGE BLOOMFIELD adds, " When I left *London* he was turned of eighteen; and much of my happiness since has arisen from a constant correspondence which I have held with him."

" After I left him, he studied *Music*, and was a good player on the *Violin*."

" But as my Brother *Nat* had married a *Woolwich* woman, it happened that *Robert* took a fancy to a comely young woman of that Town, whose father is a boat-builder in the Government yard there. His name is CHURCH."

" Soon after he married, *Robert* told me, in a Letter, that ' he had sold his Fiddle and got a Wife.' Like most poor men, he got a wife first, and had to get household stuff afterward. It took him some years to get out of ready furnished Lodgings. At length, by hard working, &c. he acquired a Bed of his own, and hired the room up one pair of stairs at 14, *Bell-alley*, *Coleman-street*. The Landlord kindly gave him leave to sit and work in the light *Garret*, two pair of stairs higher."

" In *this* Garret, amid six or seven other workmen, his active Mind employed itself in composing *the Farmer's Boy.*"

" In my correspondence I have seen several *poetical* effusions of his; all of them of a good moral tendency; but which he very likely would think do him little credit: on that account I have not preserved them."

"ROBERT is a *Ladies Shoemaker*, and works for DAVIES, *Lombard-street.* He is of a slender make; of about 5 *F.* 4 *I.* high; very *dark* complexion....His MOTHER, who is a very religious member of the *Church of England*, took all the pains she could in his infancy to make him pious: and as his Reason expanded, his love of God and Man increased with it. I never knew his fellow for mildness of temper and Goodness of Disposition. And since I left him, universally is he praised by those who know him best, for the best of Husbands, an indulgent Father, and quiet Neighbour. He is about thirty-two years old, and has three Children."

To describe the various occupations of a farmer's boy, in the four seasons of the year, is the main design of the poem; and however humble these employments may appear as objects of poetical attention, the very ingenious writer has contrived to embellish their rusticity and meanness with a harmony of numbers, which could not be expected from an uncultivated mind; to soften the harshness of minute detail, by blending apt and picturesque descriptions; and to enliven the whole by strokes of poetic imagery, and unaffected sentiment.

As specimens of his powers, we select, from the *Summer's* Song, a delineation of the *Harvest Field*, including a well-merited censure on the shameful practice of docking the tails of horses;—and, from the picture of the *Autumnal* Season, we shall take the pathetic description of a poor distracted young woman:

'Here, midst the boldest triumphs of her worth,
NATURE herself invites the REAPERS forth;
Dares the keen sickle from its twelvemonth's rest,
And gives that ardour which in every breast
From infancy to age alike appears,
When the first sheaf its plumy top uprears.
No rake takes here what Heaven to all bestows:
Children of want, for you the bounty flows!
And every cottage from the plenteous store
Receives a burden nightly at its door.

'Hark! where the sweeping scythe now rips along:
Each sturdy Mower emulous and strong;
Whose writhing form meridian heat defies,
Bends o'er his work, and every sinew tries;
Prostrates the waving treasure at his feet,
But spares the rising clover, short and sweet.
Come, HEALTH! come, *Jollity!* light-footed, come;
Here hold your revels, and make this your home.
Each heart awaits and hails you as its own;
Each moisten'd brow, that scorns to wear a frown:
Th'unpeopled dwelling mourns its tenants stray'd;
E'en the domestic laughing dairy-maid

His

Hies to the FIELD, the general toil to share.
Meanwhile the FARMER quits his elbow-chair,
His cool brick-floor, his pitcher, and his ease,
And braves the sultry beams, and gladly sees
His gates thrown open, and his team abroad,
The ready group attendant on his word,
To turn the swaith, the quiv'ring load to rear,
Or ply the busy rake, the land to clear.
Summer's light garb itself now cumb'rous grown,
Each his thin doublet in the shade throws down;
Where oft the mastiff sculks with half-shut eye,
And rouses at the stranger passing by;
Whilst unrestrain'd the social converse flows,
And every breast Love's pow'rful impulse knows,
And rival wits with more than rustic grace
Confess the presence of a pretty face;
For, lo! encircled there, the lovely MAID,
In youth's own bloom and native smiles array'd;
Her hat awry, divested of her gown,
Her creaking stays of leather, stout and brown;...
Invidious barrier! why art thou so high,
When the slight cov'ring of her neck slips by,
There half revealing to the eager sight
Her full, ripe bosom, exquisitely white?
In many a local tale of harmless mirth,
And many a jest of momentary birth,
She bears a part, and as she stops to speak,
Strokes back the ringlets from her glowing cheek.

'Now noon gone by, and four declining hours,
The weary limbs relax their boasted pow'rs;
Thirst rages strong, the fainting spirits fail,
And ask the sov'reign cordial, home-brew'd ale:
Beneath some shelt'ring heap of yellow corn
Rests the hoop'd keg, and friendly cooling horn,
That mocks alike the goblet's brittle frame,
Its costlier potions, and its nobler name.
To *Mary* first the brimming draught is given,
By toil made welcome as the dews of heaven,
And never lip that press'd its homely edge
Had kinder blessings or a heartier pledge.
Of wholesome viands here a banquet smiles,
A common cheer for all;...e'en humble *Giles*,
Who joys his trivial services to yield
Amidst the fragrance of the open field;
Oft doom'd in suffocating heat to bear
The cobweb'd barn's impure and dusty air;
To ride in murky state the panting steed,
Destin'd aloft th' unloaded grain to tread,
Where, in his path as heaps on heaps are thrown,
He rears, and plunges the loose mountain down:
Laborious task! with what delight when done

Both horse and rider greet th' unclouded sun!
Yet by th' unclouded sun are hourly bred
The bold assailants that surround thine head,
Poor patient *Ball!* and with insulting wing
Roar in thine ears, and dart the piercing sting:
In thy behalf the crest-wav'd boughs avail
More than thy short clipt remnant of a tail,
A moving mockery, an useless name,
A living proof of cruelty and shame.
Shame to the man, whatever fame he bore,
Who took from thee what man can ne'er restore,
Thy weapon of defence, thy chiefest good,
When swarming flies contending suck thy blood.
Nor thine alone the suff'ring, thine the care,
The fretful *Ewe* bemoans an equal share;
Tormented into sores, her head she hides,
Or angry brushes from her new-shorn sides.
Pen'd in the yard, e'en now at closing day
Unruly *Cows* with mark'd impatience stay,
And vainly striving to escape their foes,
The pail kick'd down, a piteous current flows.'

' THE PRIDE of such a party, Nature's pride,
Was lovely POLL;[*] who innocently try'd
With hat of airy shape and ribbons gay,
Love to inspire, and stand in Hymen's way:
But, ere her *twentieth* Summer could expand,
Or youth was render'd happy with her hand,
Her mind's serenity was lost and gone,
Her eye grew languid, and she wept alone;
Yet causeless seem'd her grief; for quick restrain'd,
Mirth follow'd loud, or indignation reign'd:
Whims wild and simple led her from her home,
The heath, the common, or the fields to roam:
Terror and joy alternate rul'd her hours;
Now blithe she sung, and gather'd useless flow'rs;
Now pluck'd a tender twig from every bough,
To whip the hov'ring demons from her brow.
Ill-fated Maid! thy guiding spark is fled,
And lasting wretchedness waits round thy bed...,
Thy bed of straw! for mark, where even now
O'er their lost child afflicted parents bow;
Their woe she knows not, but perversely coy,
Inverted customs yield her sullen joy;
Her midnight meals in secresy she takes,
Low mutt'ring to the moon, that rising breaks
Through night's dark gloom:...oh how much more forlorn
Her night, that knows of no returning dawn!...
Slow from the threshold, once her infant seat,
O'er the cold earth she crawls to her retreat;

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[*] ' Mary Rayner, of Ixworth Thorp.'

'Quitting the cot's warm walls in filth to lie,
Where the swine grunting yields up half his sty;
The damp night air her shiv'ring limbs assails;
In dreams she moans, and fancied wrongs bewails.
When morning wakes, none earlier rous'd than she,
When pendent drops fall glitt'ring from the tree;
But nought her rayless melancholy cheers,
Or sooths her breast, or stops her streaming tears.
Her matted locks unornamented flow;
Clasping her knees, and waving to and fro;...
Her head bow'd down, her faded cheek to hide;...
A piteous mourner by the pathway side.
Some tufted molehill through the livelong day
She calls her throne; there weeps her life away:
And oft the gaily passing stranger stays
His well-tim'd step, and takes a silent gaze,
Till sympathetic drops unbidden start,
And pangs quick springing muster round his heart;
And soft he treads with other gazers round,
And fain would catch her sorrow's plaintive sound;
One word alone is all that strikes the ear,
One short, pathetic, simple word,..." *Oh dear!*"
A thousand times repeated to the wind,
That wafts the sigh, but leaves the pang behind!
For ever of the proffer'd parley shy,
She hears th' unwelcome foot advancing nigh;
Nor quite unconscious of her wretched plight,
Gives one sad look, and hurries out of sight....

'Fair promis'd sunbeams of terrestrial bliss,
Health's gallant hopes,...and are ye sunk to this?
For in life's road though thorns abundant grow,
There still are joys poor Poll can never know;
Joys which the gay companions of her prime
Sip, as they drift along the stream of time;
At eve to hear beside their tranquil home
The lifted latch, that speaks the lover come:
That love matur'd, next playful on the knee
To press the velvet lip of infancy;
To stay the tottering step, the features trace;
Inestimable sweets of social peace!'

Mr. Lofft remarks in the preface, that, on first seeing this poem in MS. and observing that it was divided into the *Four Seasons*, he apprehended that the writer had been vainly endeavouring to follow (in verse) the steps of the admirable Thomson: but that he was soon relieved from that apprehension, on discovering that, 'although the RURAL SCENERY naturally branches itself into these divisions, there was little else except the general qualities of a musical ear; flowing numbers, feeling, piety, poetic imagery and animation, a taste for the picturesque, a true sense of the natural and pathetic, force of thought, and liveliness of imagination, which were in common between Thomson and this Author.'

The poem certainly discovers very clearly the powers of natural unassisted genius; and we hope that the friends of George Bloomfield will take warning from the injudicious treatment of preceding poets in humble stations, (Stephen Duck, Robert Burns, &c.) and not suffer the inconsistency of his turn of mind and his situation in life to prove his ruin, through the baneful influence of flattery, and by *misguided* attempts to befriend merit in obscurity.

Art. X. *A modest Apology for the Roman Catholics of Great Britain:* addressed to all moderate Protestants; particularly to the Members of both Houses of Parliament. 8vo. pp. 271. 7s. Boards. Faulder. 1800.

Publications of this kind must surely contribute, more or less, to the diffusion of that liberality of sentiment, without which our boasted improvements in knowlege only proclaim our reproach. An enlightened ought to be a generous mind; and how lamentable that it is not always so! but that we often observe narrow prejudices entwining themselves around the heart of the wise and good, and vegetating with such luxuriance as to obscure, if not absolutely to stifle, the growth of genuine benevolence! It has been remarked, till we are tired of the repetition, that, while the profession of religion avows the purest and most diffusive love, it has been the source of the most rancorous hatred; and that often, in the very act of deploring the want of charity, proofs of the greatest uncharitableness are exhibited. Protestant sects have, at times, felt the sense of justice strongly enough to own how ungenerously they have treated each other: but they seem to think that towards papists they may fairly cherish all the acrimony of intolerance. Because papists once persecuted, they and their descendants are to be persecuted " from generation to generation;" because men of this profession once gloried in the hateful principles of bigotry, and disgraced themselves by acting on them, we follow their steps in our treatment of their posterity, though we are convinced of and reprobate their errors! It is time to remove this scandal from the churches and governments of the protestant world. It is high time for the lovers of religious truth to disclaim the use of all weapons in her cause, but such as she herself allows; and to avoid dishonoring her, by leading men to suspect that her divine energies require the miserable expedients of persecution, either positive or negative, to secure to her the victory and the triumph. Let Christians be assured that neither true religion nor good government has any thing to fear from their being just to each other. Let papists and protestants agree with Dr. Sturges, in a passage quoted in this Apology, that "the want of Christian charity is the worst of all heresies;" and let them resolve to have no zeal for truth but what is erected on the basis of love. Let the protestant, whose hand now holds the rod of power, candidly hear the complaint of the Roman catholic, and be ready to redress it as far as it is well founded; neither "visiting the sins of the fathers on the children," nor being actuated by those illiberal fears which, under the pretext of security, excite the deprivation of civil privileges *.

Have the Roman catholics of this country been fairly treated? Have they not been misrepresented, not to say calumniated? Why, considered as a sect of dissenters, ought they not to enjoy all the privileges of other dissenters? It is commonly said, in justification of the disabilities of which the catholics complain, that they hold principles which cannot be tolerated by government, and which prevent their being placed on an equal footing with other dissenting subjects. This assertion, however, is denied by the ingenious and spirited author of the Modest Apology before us. He disclaims, for himself and his brethren, the wicked doctrine attributed to them, that *no faith is to be kept with heretics;* and he maintains that their doctrine of the *pope's supremacy* does not at all affect their civil allegiance and submission: but that their respect for his Holiness at Rome only regards 'his primacy of honour, rank, and precedence in the catholic church.' To allay the fears of Government, he pertinently asks whether 'there is at present any protestant state on the Continent, that has the smallest suspicion of danger arising from the exercise of the papal power?' and, in order to calm the apprehensions of the church respecting the increase of popery, he pays his own religion a poor compliment, by giving it as his opinion, that the most effectual means of diminishing the number of Roman catholics in this kingdom would be by putting them on the same footing with other dissenters. He contends that they are as loyal subjects as the protestant dissenters, and that there is no reason for degrading them by any civil disability.

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* The discerning reader will not find these and the following remarks, which are to be applied generally, inconsistent with the censures which we were obliged to pass on the particular conduct of some catholics, in our 31st vol. p. 405, &c.

This learned apologist divides his subject into three sections.

'In the first (says he) I shall lay before the reader those articles of catholic belief, about which there is, or ought to be, no dispute; because they are articles in which we are perfectly agreed with all protestants; and it will appear, I apprehend, that those articles are much more numerous and important than it is generally imagined; at least than pragmatical fomenters of division are willing to have it known.

'In the second section, I shall mark more particularly the points in which we are either perfectly agreed, or nearly coincide, with some one or other protestant communion; especially with the established church of England.

'In the third section, I shall fairly and candidly sum up all the tenets that are peculiar to catholics; ascertain what is certain, remove what is doubtful, and determine the strict sense in which a British catholic receives them; and, which is the principal part of this undertaking, depend or apologize for those tenets, the best I can; and endeavour to shew that they merit neither proscription nor persecution, nor even the privation of a single privilege that other Britons enjoy.' (P. 15—16.)

As the doctrines of the pope's supremacy, and of no faith being to be kept with heretics, are important points in this discussion, we shall transcribe a part of the author's remarks on those subjects.

'*The Supremacy, Power, and Prerogatives of the Pope.*

'Here I find my task a difficult one indeed: the more so, as I shall be obliged to make concessions, which many of my communion may think ought not to be made. But, as truth and candour must guide my pen, I will not prevaricate in a single instance.

'It is allowed then, it must be allowed, that the Pope's *supremacy*, and the consequences that seem to flow from it, have always been accounted the greatest obstacle to the emancipation of the Roman catholics of Britain.—Their adherence and subjection to a foreign Power have been considered as inconsistent with the allegiance which they owe to their own liege Sovereign, and a legitimate reason for excluding them from the rights and privileges of other British subjects.—For all the other objections against their tenets are, politically speaking, of little or no importance.

'They are, indeed, regarded as such by the acute Sir William Blackstone. He fairly allows, that neither *transubstantiation*, nor *purgatory*, nor *the invocation of saints*, nor any other such speculative opinions peculiar to Roman catholics, are sufficient reasons to exclude them from the pale of British liberty; much less to subject them to legal pains and penalties. The Pope's supremacy is the only article in their creed, which, in a political view, he thinks exceptionable; and on which he grounds the expediency of continuing to guard against its consequences by penal restrictions. I have been told that one of the first law characters of the present day entertains nearly the same idea; and has been more than once heard to say, That nothing but the dependence of the English catholics on *that old man at Rome*, and the oath of obedience to him, which their chief pastors take at their ordination, could justify the severity of British laws against British Roman catholics, or preclude them from any civil privileges, that Britons are born to enjoy.

‘ Let me endeavour then to destroy this fatal barrier, by showing that the tenet of the Pope's primacy, rightly understood, and such as it is at present generally held, not only by the catholics of Great Britain, but by those of most other countries, has nothing in it dangerous to any State or Government; nothing that can authorise the proscription of those who hold it; nothing that should defranchise them from the right of denizens.

‘ I said, “ such as it is at present generally held:” for it must be confessed, I think, by the most zealous papist, that it was once a dangerous, a most dangerous tenet.

‘ When circumvested with supposed infallibility, uncircumscribed by canons, and in the hands of an aspiring ambitious pontiff, it could not but be dangerous: and so it proved.—From it, as from the Trojan horse, issued forth an Iliad of evils, which, for a time, destroyed all lawful subordination, and subjected crowns and tiaras to the will and pleasure of one absolute ghostly despot, who governed a great portion of the world with sovereign sway.

‘ Yet this usurped empire was neither universal, nor, in its highest altitude, of long duration. It fell more rapidly than it rose, and is now almost totally annihilated. Kings no more dread the effects of pontific rage; Vatican fulminations are no longer formidable; Roman infallibility is laughed at even in Rome itself; and a Pope's *bull*, or *breve*, is, as such, as little regarded at Paris, Vienna, Madrid, and Lisbon; as it would be at Petersburg, Berlin, Copenhagen or London.

“ Still (it will be urged) the Pope's supremacy is a Roman catholic tenet—it was once, confessedly, a dangerous tenet—what was once dangerous may become so again—and, therefore, every *protestant* state should be careful to prevent it from ever recovering its former pernicious influence.”—Undoubtedly—and so, too, should every *catholic* state; and, in reality, there is not, I believe, any catholic state in Christendom, that is not as jealous of papal influence as we can be.—But, jealous as they are, they see no danger from acknowledging the Bishop of Rome to be in *rank*, *honour* and *dignity*, the first prelate in the Christian church—a privilege which was early conferred on him, partly from his being the supposed successor of two great apostles, but chiefly from his see being in the capital of the Roman empire; a privilege acknowledged by the Councils of Nice, Constantinople and Chalcedon, and admitted even by the Greeks themselves in the Council of Florence; although they soon repented, and retracted the concession.

‘ But this privilege, whencesoever it flows, when stript of all its usurped appendages, and reduced to its primitive simplicity, is nothing more than, as I have already said, a bare primacy of *honour*, *rank*, and *precedence*, which is not more dangerous to the liberties of the Christian church in general, than the primacy of Lyons is to the liberties of the Gallican, or that of Canterbury to the liberties of the Anglican church.’—(P. 73—80.)

(P. 131.) ‘ I have yet another political prejudice to encounter of no small magnitude; namely, that it is a part of our doctrine, *That faith is not to be kept with heretics;* and consequently that our protests, declarations, and even our oaths are not to be depended on.

‘ Now, that this odious, detestable doctrine has actually been taught by Romish divines and canonists, I will not, I cannot deny. What is more, I am obliged to allow, that popes themselves have taught and practised the same doctrine, and even appealed for the truth of it to canonical sanctions. When Innocent III. excommunicated the Emperor Otho, he not only declared his subjects free from their oaths of allegiance, but justified this conduct by the authority of the Fathers: for thus he expresses himself in a letter to the French King Philip Augustus: “ But if he (the Emperor) incur the sentence of excommunication, let him know, that all are absolved from their fidelity to him: for, according to the canonical sanctions of the Holy Fathers, *with him, who keeps not faith with God and his church, faith is not to be kept.* Here then we find a pope arrogating to himself, and exercising, the power of absolving subjects from their fidelity, and supporting that act by a pretended canonical sanction, “ That no faith is to be kept with one who keeps not faith with God and his church:” than which a more dangerous and hateful position can hardly be maintained. It is in vain, that some of our modern controvertists deny that ever such doctrines were taught: the fact is indisputable: but still, what has all this to do with the Roman catholics of Great Britain, who have again, and again, protested and declared, and solemnly sworn—That such tenets are no part of their creed?

‘ But it may be urged—I am sorry to say, it has been urged by unfair, ungenerous opponents, That our *swearing* is no sure criterion of our real sentiments, no secure bond for our allegiance: because the Pope may dispense with any oath which we may take to Government—even with that by which we swear that the Pope cannot give us such a dispensation! This is subtilizing indeed. The British catholic solemnly swears, *That he acknowledges in the Pope no power to depose Princes, or free their subjects from their oaths of allegiance, on any pretext whatever.—That he sincerely believes that faith is to be kept equally with all mankind, whether they be reputed heretics or not*—and, *That no power on earth can dispense with the strict and literal observance of this oath,* which he declares (still on oath) *that he takes without restriction or mental reservation*—And yet, strange to tell, it is said, *He cannot be believed?*

‘ If there be any protestant of common understanding and candour, who may still suspect that *a snake lurks in the grass,* I would ask him this plain question: If the English catholics imagined that the Pope could dispense with their oaths, why have they so long persevered in refusing to take the oaths of *Supremacy** and the *Test?* and so re-enter,

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‘ * As an individual, I have been long of opinion, that the oath of supremacy ought to be taken by the Roman catholics of Britain after re-enter, all at once, into their British birth-rights?—This consideration alone, one might think, should stop the mouth of *Captiousness* itself.*'

Much learning and address are displayed in this work; and it merits a very serious and candid perusal. There is a vein of grave irony in the discussion of some subjects, which would induce the protestant reader rather to smile than tremble at the catholic system. It is indirectly hinted that *transubstantiation* is absurd. As to *the celibacy of the clergy*, and the establishment of *nunneries*, the apologist is quite sportive on those points. *Pilgrimages* he pronounces to be 'idle, useless, and obsolete things;' and as to *beads*, *rosaries*, *medals*, *agnus Deis*, *scapularies*, &c. he terms them 'pious play-things for old women and children,—of which the English Roman catholics, in general, will not lament the loss.'

If this be a fair representation of the case, and the general body of English papists will ratify this writer's declarations, (respecting which there may be some doubts,) their religion is gradually undergoing a reform; and papal ceremony and superstition are giving way to the noble simplicity of genuine Christianity. Sincerely do we wish that it may be so; and that the endeavours of this author may be successful, as far as they tend to so desirable a purpose, and to the removal of all coercive measures where they are no longer requisite.

Art. XI. *Miscellanies.* By James Hay Beattie, A. M. with an Account of his Life and Character, by James Beattie. LL.D. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Mawman. 1799.

This work is intended to form a second volume to *the Minstrel*, written by Dr. Beattie, and published about the year 1771: (see M. Rev. vol. xliv.) It consists of essays and fragments in prose and verse by his son, a most promising youth, who died at the early age of twenty-two; and prefixed to these is an account of the life and character of the author, written by his father. Considered as an affectionate tribute to the memory of an amiable and much to be lamented son, this is an interesting composition; especially

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after the explanation given to it in the reign of Elizabeth: and this, I believe, is the opinion of several sensible persons of our communion. But as others, and perhaps a much greater number, deem the oath ambiguous, and in some sort captious, might not the Legislature explain its nature in a more explicit manner, and make it palatable to scrupulous consciences, without destroying its original intent? Or, perhaps, a formal declaration of the ordinary expounders of law might be sufficient. At any rate, the refusing to take it, unexplained as it is, is a manifest proof that the refusers believe not that the Pope can dispense with such oaths.'

to those who enjoyed his friendship, or who had a personal knowlege of him: but for the generality of readers, whom perhaps the name of the author had never reached, the detail of his short and eventless life will not possess equal interest. Where, however, a man of any singular excellence or prominent merit makes his appearance, the circumstances of his history, the particulars of his education, and whatever may have contributed to the formation of his character, become in some degree objects of curiosity, because they may eventually prove sources of instruction. How far the moral and intellectual character of Mr. Beattie was influenced by his education, we cannot decide; since there does not appear to have been any great singularity of method adopted in this respect; and the attention of the pupil, under the guidance of parental good sense, was directed to the common objects and the usual attainments. As a specimen, however, of the manner of religious instruction employed by Dr. *Beattie*, we shall select the following anecdote:

'The first rules of morality I taught him were, to speak truth, and keep a secret; and I never found that in a single instance he transgressed either.

'The doctrines of religion I wished to impress on his mind, as soon as it might be prepared to receive them; but I did not see the propriety of making him commit to memory theological sentences, or any sentences, which it was not possible for him to understand. And I was desirous to make a trial how far his own reason could go in tracing out, with a little direction, the great and first principle of all religion, the being of GOD. The following fact is mentioned, not as a proof of superior sagacity in him (for I have no doubt that most children would in like circumstances think as he did), but merely as a moral or logical experiment.

'He had reached his fifth [or sixth] year, knew the alphabet, and could read a little; but had received no particular information with respect to the Author of his being: because I thought he could not yet understand such information; and because I had learned from my own experience, that to be made to repeat words not understood is extremely detrimental to the faculties of a young mind. In a corner of a little garden, without informing any person of the circumstance, I wrote in the mould, with my finger, the three initial letters of his name; and, sowing garden cresses in the furrows, covered up the seed, and smoothed the ground. Ten days after, he came running to me, and with astonishment in his countenance told me, that his name was growing in the garden. I smiled at the report, and seemed inclined to disregard it; but he insisted on my going to see what had happened. Yes, said I carelessly, on coming to the place, I see it is so; but there is nothing in this worth notice; it is mere chance: and I went away. He followed me, and, taking hold of my coat, said, with some earnestness, it could not be mere chance; for that some body must have contrived matters so as to produce it.—I pretend not to give his words, or my own, for I have forgotten both; but I give the substance of what passed between us in such language as we both understood.—So you think, I said, that what appears so regular as the letters of your name cannot be by chance. Yes, said he, with firmness, I think so. Look at yourself, I replied, and consider your hands and fingers, your legs and feet, and other limbs; are they not regular in their appearance, and useful to you? He said, they were. Came you then hither, said I, by chance? No, he answered, that cannot be; something must have made me. And who is that something, I asked. He said, he did not know. (I took particular notice, that he did not say, as Rousseau fancies a child in like circumstances would say, that his parents made him.) I had now gained the point I aimed at: and saw, that his reason taught him, (though he could not so express it) that what begins to be must have a cause, and that what is formed with regularity must have an intelligent cause. I therefore told him the name of the Great Being who made him and all the world; concerning whose adorable nature I gave him such information as I thought he could in some measure comprehend. The lesson affected him greatly, and he never forgot either it, or the circumstance that introduced it.'

The following passages contain some account of the young author's character:

'Piety and meekness were striking features in his character, habitual to him in infancy, and through life. I find among his papers forms of devotion, composed for his own use. The Christian Religion and its evidences he had studied with indefatigable application; and the consequence was such, as may be always expected in like cases, where the enquirer has candour and sense: no person could love his religion more than he did, or believe in it with fuller assurance of faith. But in his behaviour there was no austerity or singularity. Even when he came to be a man, he had, when in health, and in the company of his intimate friends, all the playfulness of a boy. The effect of religion upon his mind was, to make him chearful, considerate, benevolent, intrepid, humble, and happy. Of the contracted principles and unamiable prejudices of sectaries he had no conception. He loved all the human race; he bore a particular love to all Christians; and he wished all parties to exercise Christian charity towards each other. The church of England he held in high veneration, and was also attached to the church of Scotland in which he had been educated; he knew that, in respect of doctrine, the principles of both are the same; and, as to the different forms of ecclesiastical discipline and worship, he did not think he had any right to affect singularity, or to molest the peace of either church by clamouring about matters of no essential importance. He wished to be, and to be considered as, a CHRISTIAN: a title, which he thought infinitely more honourable than any other. The words Lutheran and Calvinist he well understood, but set no value on them; though he was ever ready to own his obligations to those learned men who had been instrumental in bringing about the reformation from popery.

'Of modern divines his greatest favourite was Dr. Clarke. He studied all that author's works with his usual accuracy, and with much delight. Even the controversy with Dodwell he studied; for he thought it strictly connected with what Baxter and others had taught concerning the incorporeal nature of the soul: a doctrine, of which he was a zealous defender; which he had examined as far, I believe, as human ingenuity can examine it; and on which he has left a great deal in writing, though nothing finished.

'I spoke of his playfulness. In conversation with his particular friends he would display an amazing exuberance of pleasantry and humour. His knowledge of nature and extensive learning, supplied him with innumerable images; and his lively fancy, aided by simplicity of diction and a ready eloquence, enabled him to combine them into the most diverting forms that could be imagined *. He had, what perhaps all people of observation have, a slight tendency to satire; but it was of the gentlest kind; he had too much candour and good nature to be either a general satirist or a severe one. That taunting, gibing, raillery, which some people, who mistake ill-nature for wit, are so fond of, he despised and hated: he often, as his duty required, spoke in order to improve and amend others; but never uttered a word with a view to give pain.'

Of the classical attainments of Mr. Beattie, and of his acquirements in almost *every* branch of knowlege, the Doctor speaks in the strongest terms. Of his poetical and literary talents, the essays and fragments before us are favourable specimens; and they are also intitled to every allowance which candid criticism can afford, as they were written at an early age, and as most of them are now published without having been revised or corrected by the author. The English poems, particularly the serious compositions, contain strong indications of a poetical genius; and they display, to use Dr. Beattie's own words, 'an energy of expression, a vivacity of description, and an apposite variety of numbers,' far beyond the years of the author.—The following lines, on the death of Mr. Valentine, shew that in poetical talents "young Edwin was no vulgar boy:"

'Ye clouds that in tempestuous grandeur driven
Involve in twilight gloom the noon day heaven;
Ye torrents, down these craggy cliffs that roar:
Ye murmurs hoarse, that sweep the pebbly shore;
Ye winds that whistle, and ye waves that roll;
Well do ye suit the sadness of my soul.

'* Several passages of this Preface I have found copied, and without acknowledgement applied to another person. See Anderson's Edition of British Poets, quoted in the Monthly Review for September 1798, page 18, &c.'

Yet,

Yes, ye rude rocks, the lingering sounds return,
Ye woods, wave high your hoary heads, and mourn,
And howl, ye melancholy gales, along,
Wafting the wild notes of funereal song.

'Yet, why for him attune funereal lays,
Him deaf to mortal plaint, and mortal praise;
Safe, where no perils threat, no anguish stings,
But Peace for ever spreads triumphant wings!
Where hosts of Seraphim hosannas raise,
And worlds to worlds resound their Maker's praise;
Where sorrow, toil, and care, in rapture drown'd,
Heaven's everlasting splendour blazes round.
The virtuous man, who nobly yields his breath,
Requires not sorrow, but exults in death:
Crown'd with fair fame the patriot hero's bier
Disclaims the tribute of a tender tear.

'Let tender tears embalm the gentle maid,
In the gay morn of life whose beauties fade:
Oft at her tomb the village train be seen,
To deck with wreathes of freshest flower the green.
There let the nightingale along the grove,
At the lone midnight hour lament her love;
The snow-drop there a sickly blossom shed,
The lily languishingly hang the head;
And there the lay of wo her doom deplore,
Who bloom'd, and smiled, and charm'd, and is no more.

'But other musick to thy grave be born,
And trophies different far thy turf adorn.
There let the oak in majesty arise,
It's giant arms wide-waving in the skies;
Fated perhaps with Britain's flag to shine,
And future heroes bear to deeds like thine.
That mount, where thy remains in honour sleep,
Amid the murmur of th' encircling deep,
Thy friends, who still the patriot ardour share,
Shall visit, and shall love to linger there;
Heave, in ecstatick tears, affection's sigh,
And wish like thee to live, like thee to die:
Like thee, from discontent secure and strife,
To flourish through the vernal years of life;
Then ripe in glory sink into the grave,
Mourn'd by the good, and envy'd by the brave.

'Full often, when at length are past away
The languid moments of the lonely day,
And night a welcome change of scene supplies,
Spreading her sparkling mantle o'er the skies,
In sleep I see the elements engage,
And hear the winds howl, and the waters rage.
—That solitary bark contends in vain,
Toss'd in th' infuriate uproar of the main,

While mountain waves in long array are driven,
And the fierce lightning fires the angry heaven.
Lo, plunging far down down the billowy steep
She reels: and lo, she sinks for ever in the deep.
Shivering I wake in tears, aghast, forlorn,
To waste in wo the melancholy morn.

'Father Almighty, whose supreme control
In light and life makes worlds unnumber'd roll;
Whose providence, to man for ever kind,
By grief refines, with comfort calms the mind;
Whose chastenings, proof of thy paternal love,
Teach hope to soar to better worlds above:
O when in light these shadows melt away,
In light, the dawning of eternal day;
When the high trump of heaven, with mellow breath,
Pours thrilling thunder in the ear of death;
On me may that last morn serenely shine,
And give me back my loved, lamented VALENTINE.'

The Latin translations have the merit of being very liter without being stiff and harsh. Of Mr. B.'s ludicrous verses, cannot much commend either the humour or the wit; t latter is not remarkable for brilliancy, delicacy, or point; a the former is neither of the broad and palpable kind whic by its caricatured features, forces sudden and instantaneo laughter, nor of that refined and corrected species which, und the disguise of simplicity, and by means of a chaste sobrie of manner, insinuates itself into the mind, and steals the sm of approbation.

The concluding pages of the volume are occupied wi three dialogues of the dead, in prose; the first between Johns and Addison, in which Johnson's style is not unsuccessfu imitated, and its merits are convassed and appreciated: t second, an unfinished dialogue between Johnson, Socrat and a fine gentleman, relative to the biographical accounts Johnson: the third, between Mercury, Swift, and a boo seller, in which the introduction of a set of vulgar, barbaro and pedantic words and phrases into our language, is ridicul with much propriety and some humour.

In closing our account of this affecting parental tes mony to filial merit, we cannot but join with Dr. Beattie lamenting that the world was so early deprived of one w promised to be a pattern of moral worth, and to have reflect lustre on literary eminence.

Art. XII. *Sermons on Practical Subjects*, by the late William Enfield, LL. D. Prepared for the Press by Himself. To which are prefixed Memoirs of the Author, by J. Aikin, M. D. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.

It often happens to us, as to other men in other pursuits, that our wishes are opposed by untoward circumstances, and our labours retarded by the very means which we project to accelerate them. This has been the case with respect to the volumes now before us; which ought long ago to have received their merited notice in our work, but which have been delayed by a variety of obstacles. It is unnecessary to detail these causes to the public: but we may mention that among them one of the common sufferings of humanity, the want of health, has had a predominant influence. No literary man can be a stranger to the character and abilities of Dr. Enfield; and with his personal worth, now that he is, alas! no more, we may be permitted to declare ourselves well-acquainted. It is with sincere regret, therefore, that we find ourselves thus tardy in performing our duty to the public as critics, and in gratifying the feelings of our hearts as men. Late as we are, however, we must now endeavour to execute this double task; and it shall be our care that the opinion of the reviewer shall receive no improper bias from the sentiments of the friend.

The first volume is introduced by a well-written account of Dr. Enfield, from the pen of Dr. Aikin. We believe the representation to be correct; and with gratitude and pleasure we survey the portrait of a man of whom it may be said, that mild manners, moral worth, real piety, correct taste, and varied attainments, rendered him an example to all who knew him. We will not, however, invade Dr. Aikin's province, but, since he has executed his task with so much propriety, shall avail ourselves of his labours by extracting various passages from these memoirs.

'The Rev. William Enfield, LL. D. was born at Sudbury in Suffolk, on March 29, 1741, O. S.—In his 17th year he was sent to the academy at Daventry, then conducted by the Rev. Dr. Ashworth. At this seminary he passed through the usual course of preparatory study for the pulpit. Of his academical character I know no more than that he was always conspicuous for the elegance of his compositions; and that he was among the number of those students whose inquiries led them to adopt a less rigid system of christianity than was the established doctrine of the place.

'It was a striking proof of the attractions he possessed as a preacher, and as an amiable man in society, that almost immediately on leaving the academy he was invited to undertake the office of sole minister to the congregation of Benn's Garden in Liverpool, one of the most respectable among the dissenters. To that situation he was

ordained

ordained in November 1763; and in a town abounding with agreeable society, and distinguished by liberal sentiments and hospitable manners, he passed seven of the happiest years of his life.'—'Though greatly engaged both in the pleasant intercourses of society, and in the serious duties of his office, he commenced in this place his literary career with two volumes of sermons, printed in 1768 and 1770, which were very favourably received by the public. Their pleasing moral strain, marked by no systematic peculiarities, so well adapted them for general use, that many congregations, besides that in which they were originally preached, had the benefit of the instruction they conveyed.

'On the death of the Rev. Mr. Seddon of Warrington, Mr. Enfield was one of the first persons thought of by the trustees of the academical institution founded in that place, to succeed him in the offices of tutor in the belles-lettres, and of resident conductor of the discipline, under the title of *Rector Academiæ*.—[The academy, however, was dissolved in 1783.]

'However toilsome and anxious this period of Dr. Enfield's life might have been, it was that of rapid mental improvement. By the company he kept, and the business he had to go through, his faculties were strained to full exertion: nor was it only as a tutor that he employed his talents; he greatly extended his reputation as a writer.'—

'The degree of doctor of laws, which added a new title to his name during his residence at Warrington, was conferred upon him by the university of Edinburgh.

'After the dissolution of the academy, Dr. Enfield remained two years at Warrington, occupied in the education of private pupils, a small number of whom he took as boarders, and in the care of his congregation. For the instruction of the latter he drew up a series of discourses on the principal incidents and moral precepts of the gospel, in which he displayed both his talents as a commentator, and his skill in expanding into general lessons of conduct, those hints and particular observations which occur in the sacred narratives. This will not be an improper place to give some account of Dr. Enfield's character as a preacher and a divine. His manner of delivery was grave and impressive, affecting rather a tenor of uniform dignity than a variety of expression, for which his voice was not well calculated. It was entirely free from what is called *tone*, and though not highly animated, was by no means dull, and never careless or indifferent. As to his matter, it was almost exclusively that of a *moral preacher*. Religion was to him rather a principle than a sentiment; and he was more solicitous to deduce from it *a rule of life*, enforced by its peculiar sanctions, than to elevate it into a source of sublime feeling. Despising superstition, and fearing enthusiasm, he held as of inferior value every thing in religion which could not ally itself with morality, and condescend to human uses. His theological system was purged of every mysterious or unintelligible proposition; it included nothing which appeared to him irreconcileable with sound philosophy, and the most rational opinions concerning the divine nature and perfections.'—

'In 1785, receiving an invitation from the octagon-dissenting congregation at Norwich, a society with whom any man might esteem it an honour and happiness to be connected, he accepted it, under the condition of residing at a small distance from the city, and continuing his plan of domestic education. He first settled at the pleasant village of Thorpe; but at length he found it more convenient to remove to Norwich itself. Though he was eminently happy in his mode of educating a small number, of which several striking examples might be adduced, yet, like most who have adopted that plan, he found that the difficulty of keeping up a regular supply of pupils, and the unpleasant restraint arising from a party of young men, so far domiciliated, that they left neither time nor place for family privacy, more than compensated the advantages to be derived from such an employment of his talents. He finally removed, therefore, to a smaller habitation, entirely declined receiving boarders, and only gave private instructions to two or three select pupils a few hours in the forenoon. At length he determined to be perfectly master of his own time, and to give to his family, friends, and spontaneous literary pursuits, all the leisure he possessed from his professional duties. The circumstances of his family confirmed him in this resolution. He was the father of two sons and three daughters, all educated under his own eye; and had he had no other examples to produce of his power of making himself at the same time a friend and a tutor—of conciliating the most tender affection with ready and undeviating obedience—his children would, by all who know them, be admitted as sufficient proofs of this happy art.' —

'He had not yet completely detached himself from the business of tuition, when he undertook the most laborious of his literary tasks, an abridgment of "Brucker's History of Philosophy." This work appeared in two volumes 4to. in the year 1791, and would alone have been sufficient to establish the writer's character as a master of the middle style of composition, and as a judicious selector of what was most valuable in the representation of manners and opinions. The original work has obtained a high reputation among the learned, for the depth of its researches, and the liberality of its spirit; but its Latin style is involved and prolix, and the heaviness that pervades the whole has rendered it rather a book for occasional consultation than for direct perusal. Dr. Enfield's abridgment is a work equally instructive and agreeable; and it may be pronounced that the tenets of all the leading sects of philosophers were never before, in the English language, displayed with such elegance and perspicuity.'—

'Thus did his latter years glide on, tranquil and serene, in the bosom of domestic comfort, surrounded by friends to whom he became continually more dear, and in the midst of agreeable occupations. So well confirmed did his health appear, and so much did he feel himself in the full vigour and maturity of his powers, that he did not hesitate, in the year 1796, to associate himself with the writer of this account, one of his oldest and most intimate companions, in a literary undertaking of great magnitude, which looked to a distant period for its completion. Were it not the duty of mortals to employ their talents in the way they can approve, without regarding contingencies which they can neither foresee nor overrule, such an engagement, in persons descending into the vale of years, might be accused of presumption; but it implied in them no more than a resolution to act with diligence as long as they should be permitted to act—to work while it is called to-day, mindful of that approaching night when no man can work. The composition, that of a *General Biographical Dictionary*, proved so agreeable to Dr. Enfield, that he was often heard to say his hours of study had never passed so pleasantly with him; and the progress he made was proportioned to his industry and good-will. Every circumstance seemed to promise him years of comfort in store. He was happy himself, and imparted that happiness to all who came within the sphere of his influence. But an incurable disease was in the mean time making unsuspected advances. A scirrhous contraction of the rectum, denoting itself only by symptoms which he did not understand, and which, therefore, he imperfectly described to his medical friends, was preparing, without pain or general disease, to effect a sudden and irresistible change. The very day before this disorder manifested itself he was complimented on his cheerful spirits, and healthy looks, and himself confessed that he had nothing, bodily or mental, of which he ought to complain. But the obstruction was now formed. A sickness came on, the proper functions of the intestines were suspended, nothing was able to give relief; and after a week, passed rather in constant uneasiness than in acute pain, with his faculties entire nearly to the last, foreseeing the fatal event, and meeting it with manly fortitude, he sunk in the arms of his children and friends, and expired without a struggle. This catastrophe took place on Nov. 3, 1797, in the fifty-seventh year of his life. The deep regrets of all who knew him—of those the most to whom he was best known—render it unnecessary to enter into any further description of a character, the essence of which was *to be amiable*.[1]

Such was Dr. Enfield; and we have the more readily inserted the praises bestowed by Dr. Aikin on his character, because we believe that here Friendship has not done violence to Truth.

It is now our business to attend to the Sermons here presented to the world. Admitting that the chief end of preaching is the improvement of the mind by exciting religious sentiments, and the amelioration of the heart by imbuing it with pure and amiable sensations, Dr. E. must be said to have discharged the preacher's office with considerable success; and to have exhibited chaste models of pulpit eloquence, as far as the inculcation of practical religion and morality is concerned. His discourses manifest no verbosity, nor any attempt to give common thoughts an air of consequence by pompous and inflated diction. Though they are in the form of essays, without the old fashioned divisions, there is no want of arrangement; nor do they give the least idea, which many modern essays excite, that the writer, when he had finished one period, was uncertain what would be the next. In Dr. Enfield's compositions, we see great correctness of sentiment, and a happy mode of expression. His words stand for ideas: he is clear without needless expansion, and concise without being confused.

The theological opinions of Dr. Enfield are not those which are most prevalent in the Christian world: but he makes no attempt to conceal them; nor, by a trick common with many preachers, does he employ phrases which, though used in one sense, it is intended that the audience shall take in another. Without wishing to offend, he displays an openness and manliness which all liberal and ingenuous natures must admire. Though not descending to verbal criticisms, his sermons are often illustrative of his text; explaining in what sense it is to be taken, and to what practical uses it is to be applied. Those on the *Characters of Charity*, (in which he has followed the method pointed out in his Preacher's Directory) on Acts xx. 35. on James ii. 10. and of *Christ's Treatment of the Woman taken in Adultery*, with others, may be adduced as examples of this remark. Combining in himself the characters of a Christian divine and a philosopher, he endeavours to strengthen and enforce scriptural instruction by demonstrating its reasonableness; and to found the lessons of piety and virtue on sentiments and reflections established on the rock of eternal truth. He makes religion and morality display not only their pure and divine origin, but all their lovely and attractive graces; and we should despair of quickening those to any of the sweet energies of virtue, who could either hear or read such discourses without wishing to abound more in love towards God and man.

Each volume contains twenty sermons. They are not long: but the enumeration of their titles will shew that they embrace a variety of interesting subjects. Those in

Vol. I. are, *on the Omnipresence of God.—On the Faithfulness of God.—Characters of the Works of God.—The Christian Religion, a valuable Treasure.—On the moral Abuse of Words.—Against thinking ill of the World.—Inattention to the Concerns of others reproved.—Characters of Charity*; two Sermons.—*The good Man secure from Shame.—Against Evil-speaking. —On Industry.—Caution in forming, and Constancy in preserving, Friendships recommended.—Prayer for a Competency.—Youth and Age compared.—On Humility.—The Value of Moral Wisdom.—On the Necessity of establishing good Principles, and fixing a prudent Plan of Conduct, in early Life —The Nature, Causes, and Folly, of Self-deception. —Contentment and Generosity exemplified in the Conduct of Esau.*

Vol. II. *The Importance of social Harmony to the Happiness of Life.—The Value of good Intentions.—When a Desire of pleasing becomes a Virtue.—Great Popularity no Proof of great Merit.—Benevolence preferable to Selfishness.—On Meekness.—On Sensibility.—Unexpensive Methods of doing Good.—Animated Exertions in all laudable Undertakings recommended.—Nathan's Reproof of David.—Against Lying.—The Fear of Man a dangerous Snare.—Decorum of Character recommended.—Continual Advances towards Perfection in Knowledge and Virtue recommended.*

—The Goodness of God to the Poor.—Universal Obedience necessary to Salvation.—The true Ground of Justification.—The Wisdom of suffering *rather than* sinning.*—Christians, Sons of God.—The Laws of Religion not burdensome.*

Vol. III. *Christ's Conversation with a rich young Man.—The poor Widow's Mite.—The Folly of rash Confidence.—The Characters of the Hypocrite and the Penitent compared.—Christ's Conversation with the Woman of Samaria.—The Folly of rejecting Instruction. – The Criminality of uncharitable Judgment in imputing good Actions to bad Motives.—The Parable of the unjust Steward.—The Parable of the Ten Talents.—Christ's Treatment of the Woman taken in Adultery.—On the Perpetuity of the Christian Church.—The best Christians unprofitable Servants.—The Wisdom of foreseeing and providing against Difficulties and Dangers.—Mutual Condescension recommended by the Example of Christ.—The Folly of ambitious Desires.—Christ's last Conversation with his Apostles before his Crucifixion.—Christ's last Discourse to his Disciples.—Christ's last Discourse to his Apostles. – The Institution of the Lord's Supper.—The general Conclusions from the Gospel History concerning Christ.*

Though Dr. E.'s sentiments on disputed points of divinity are not concealed, and though in the last sermon, particularly, he exhibits his opinion of Christ and of the Christian religion, he must not be classed with controversial writers. His chief objects were to prevent misanthropy and selfishness; and to induce mankind to think well of each other, to love each other, and to act with kindness and generosity one towards the other. The sermon on Psalm cxvi. 11. 'against thinking ill of the World,' is admirable in this view; as is also that on Acts xx. 35. 'on Benevolence preferable to Selfishness.' From each of these we shall make an extract. In the first, the preacher says:

'The observations, which every man makes, and must necessarily make, upon the characters of others, are sufficient to justify him in concluding that human society is composed of good and bad men, as the same field produces both wheat and tares. Let any take a candid survey of that portion of human society which lies within the sphere of his own observation, and he must be very unfortunate indeed in his situation, if he do not find a sufficient number of good and worthy characters to rescue human nature from the reproach of universal depravity. If we sometimes meet with men who openly avow their dereliction of every principle of religion, and every moral obligation, and have the effrontery to confess that they know only one rule of conduct, that every man is to take care of himself without regarding what becomes of others; such men are rare monsters in the moral world, seldom seen, and when met with, only gazed at with astonishment and horror. If in the present artificial, and in many respects corrupt, state of society, false notions of honor are embraced which militate against the first principles of religion and virtue—and which, in some instances, under the imperious and irresistible authority of custom, prompt men to commit, or, which in moral estimation is the same thing, to attempt to commit, crimes from which the feeling and virtuous mind revolts with horror—it is to be considered that these absurd and mischievous notions prevail only in a small part of the community, and affect that part only occasionally, and partially; and that the generality of mankind are still content to acknowledge, in all cases, the supreme authority of conscience and of God. In the transactions of commercial life, can it be doubted that men commonly observe the law of honesty; and that the violations of this law, which take place between the buyer and the seller, though frequent, are, after all, only occasional exceptions to a general rule? It is sometimes asserted, in proof of the general depravity of the world, that it is impossible, in the present state of things, that a man of business who is strictly honest should prosper; and that, therefore, every man who wishes to make his way in the world, must bend his conscience to his situation, and relax in some measure the ties of moral obligation, by which in a purer state of society he might be more strictly bound. Without retorting upon those who make such assertions the uncandid insinuation, that they judge of the general character of the world by their own, we may be allowed to ask, whether it would be possible for society to subsist at all upon the supposition, that fraud and falsehood were as common as truth and honesty are at present? What, in that case, would become of that mutual confidence which is the soul of commercial intercourse? Would not the general failure of integrity produce universal distrust? and what could arise from universal distrust but universal confusion? Bad as the world is, it is, then, not true, nor approaching to the truth, that all men are knaves, or that all men are liars.

'The fact on the present question is so clear, that the matter may be safely rested on an appeal to the most gloomy and discontented misanthrope, or to the most severe and rigid judge of human characters. Where is the man who will not acknowledge, that though he may have been disappointed in many of his reasonable expectations from others, his connections with his fellow-creatures have afforded no proof that every man has been devising evil, and practising mischief against him? who, if he speak the truth, must honestly confess, that those around him have, on the whole, done him little injustice, and shewn him much kindness. No one, who is not absolutely without friend or brother—who does not, in the midst of society, live as solitary and joyless as the torpid monk in his cell—who is not continually oppressed and wretched, through the injustice and cruelty of his brethren—can have any pretence for passing an unbounded censure on mankind.

'With respect to the generality of persons in the ordinary situations of life, I will be bold to assert, that their experience can afford them no plea for indulging such gloomy ideas of human life, or such splenetic feelings towards their species; and it deserves serious consideration, that the indulgence of such ideas and such feelings is highly injurious.'

The sermon on Benevolence, from the words of Christ, "It is more blessed to give than to receive," has this beautiful exordium:

'Among the treasures of wisdom transmitted from antient times to the present, none are more valuable than those moral maxims which express, in a few concise and pointed terms, weighty sentiments for the regulation of human life and manners. Many such are scattered through the writings of the ancient philosophers, historians, and poets; and it would be a labour of no inconsiderable utility to collect these precious fragments, and bring them into familiar use. While the common sayings of ordinary persons perish without regard, like water spilled on the ground which no one attempts to gather up, the pithy apophthegms of wise and excellent men should be carefully preserved, "like the dust of gold, or the least sparks of diamonds*."

'A beautiful specimen of this kind of sententious wisdom we have in the text; and it is a circumstance which may particularly recommend it to our attention, that it is a saying of our Saviour not to be found in the original records of his doctrine left us by the evangelists, but casually preserved by Luke in his history of the transactions of the apostles, as a quotation made by Paul in his farewell address to the church of Ephesus. Words of Jesus, in this manner rescued from oblivion, ought not to be overlooked or forgotten by his followers.

'Independently of this circumstance, the maxim—"It is more blessed (or more happy) to give than to receive," expresses an important sentiment which may well deserve a distinct and attentive consideration. The observation may be understood in the limited sense in which it appears to have been quoted by the apostle, in reference to acts of charity for the relief of the necessitous; or it may admit of a more comprehensive interpretation, as expressing that "law of love" which is the fundamental principle of christianity, and to instruct us that benevolence is productive of more happiness than selfishness. Let us contemplate the doctrine of the text under each of these aspects.'

In the prosecution of the discourse, the preacher observes;

'The stress which christianity lays upon the social virtues, and particularly the encouragement which it gives to the exercise of disinterested and universal benevolence, are among the highest proofs of its wisdom and excellence. The principle of benevolence is as deeply rooted in human nature as that of self-love; and it would be as absurd to leave the former as the latter out of a system of morals. Not only are we so dependent upon each other, that no man can attain happiness without the assistance of his brethren, but we are so constantly in the habit of exercising reciprocal affection, that attention to the gratification and welfare of others becomes an essential part of our own happiness. The first and greatest charm of life is society; and in society the principal part of our enjoyment arises from mutual offices and expressions of kindness. Scarcely any human being is so entirely wrapt up in himself as to find no part of his happiness in social communications. The pleasures of the festive board, and of public entertainments of every kind, arise in a great measure from joint participation. The man of science pursues knowledge, the man of taste cultivates the fine arts, chiefly from the expectation of sharing with

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'* Tillotson.'

others the pleasures of intellect or imagination. It is the hope of communicating pleasure to others which gives ardour to every pursuit; and it is the satisfaction we feel in the communication of pleasure which repays every labour.'

We could make a number of additional and more extensive extracts, for which we doubt not our readers would be thankful: but we have already exceeded our usual limits on such occasions as this, and must now refrain.

Art. XIII. *A Third Dissertation on Fever.* Part II. Containing an Inquiry into the Effects of the Remedies, which have been employed with a view to carry off a, regular continued Fever, without leaving it to pursue its ordinary Course. By George Fordyce, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 209. 3s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. 1799.

The remarks which we made, in our account of the former parts of this publication *, apply so exactly to the present, that we may be allowed to offer a rather desultory view of it.

The author's scepticism with regard to the possible good effects of general bleeding, in fevers, is surely carried to an injudicious length, when he attributes the origin of this remedy to the antient superstition of representative sacrifice. Surely all those who have themselves felt, or have witnessed in others, the distressing sensations of fullness and pain in the head, at the commencement of some fevers, will comprehend that the practice of drawing off a quantity of blood, from the most accessible and the safest part of the circulating system, might be suggested by more obvious analogies. We think that Dr. Fordyce has been extremely unfortunate in his attempts at drollery on this subject; and still more unlucky in his general argument: which, if it were admitted, would prove that blood-letting had never been found useful in any disease.

It must not be understood that we mean to defend the practice of bleeding at the commencement of all fevers. Nothing could be more absurd than the establishment of such a rule: but, in our opinion, Dr. Fordyce has erred on the contrary side. It is not difficult, however, to trace his leading objections to this method, to Dr. Cullen's admirable paragraphs on blood-letting in fever, in his *First Lines*. The matter is certainly not improved by Dr. F.'s language.

The account of antimony, which succeeds that of bleeding, is introduced by a very tedious history of the substance. After having attacked Dr. Cullen's theory of the action of antimonials, the author concludes, as usual, by adopting his opinion in effect, and recommending with him the tartarized antimony.—Such, indeed, is the ultimate co-incidence of Dr. Fordyce with the celebrated professor, that the inextricable mazes of his previous reasoning seem only calculated to make his reader forget the unadorned approaches of the *First Lines*. The circumgyrations of Dr. F. are sometimes truly amazing:

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* See M. Rev. vol. xxi. p. 91. and vol. xxviii. p. 422.

'The next question which occurs is, whether there is any other medicine which produces the same effects either more certainly, less certainly, or equally with the preparations of antimony which have been enumerated? It is matter of consideration whether this question should be first discussed, or whether it would be better to enter into the argument in what manner the preparations of antimony, hitherto described, should be employed, so as to have the best chance of carrying off the disease.

'There are many reasons that might be urged for taking the one or the other argument into discussion first; but it is not worth while taking up time in discussing this; it is therefore the author's determination, upon the whole view of the subject, to pursue the best method of employing preparations of antimony to produce crisis in fever, though he is not sure that he is right, as he may be obliged, in many instances, to take notice of the effects of other medicines which have a similar action in fevers, and produce a crisis in them.'

This ingenious passage seems to have been borrowed from the dialogue of the Usher and Physician, in the Rehearsal; where the learned speaker divides the question into three parts; "First, *When* they heard; secondly, *how* they heard; and, thirdly, *whether they heard or not?*"

We greatly doubt whether any practitioners in this kingdom entertain the opinions thus mentioned by Dr. Fordyce:

'It is still the opinion of many practitioners, that when an inflammation carries off a fever, if it be such an inflammation as tends to terminate in suppuration, the matter that occasions the fever in the whole system is accumulated in the inflamed part. When the abscess is formed and breaks, and the pus is evacuated, many practitioners still believe that the matter which first produced the fever is evacuated. Other inflammations, such as arise in the skin for example, do not terminate in suppuration, but in a blister rising; that is the scarf-skin separates from the true skin, and contains in it principally the superfluous water and the neutral salts of the blood, sometimes along with a little serum, and sometimes also coagulable lymph, which coagulates and gives some degree of solidity to the matter contained in the blister. The scarf-skin afterwards breaks, and leaves the skin excoriated till a new scarf-skin is formed; until that happens, a quantity of the superfluous water of the blood, together with the neutral salts, flow out. In this case it has been supposed that the fluid, or whatever other matter it might be that occasioned the fever, continues to be evacuated, and that so the fever is carried off.'

This laboured refutation, however, must have been suppressed, if the Doctor had not brought forwards these medical *antiques* as modern fashions.

In proceeding with the work, we find such a want of arrangement, that it is impossible to offer a connected criticism on it. The question concerning bleeding, after having been apparently dropt, is intermixed again with every class of remedies, and stares us in the face, like the "blood-boulter'd Banquo," when we least expect it.—Altogether, we must confess, that we have been much disappointed in this part of Dr. Fordyce's performance.

Art. XIV. *Transactions of a Society for the Improvement of Medical and Chirurgical Knowledge.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 378. 7s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

The utility of collections like the present, when judiciously formed, is now well impressed on the public; and the nature of this society has been already explained by its former publication. We shall therefore proceed without ceremony to an account of the different articles in the volume now before us.

Observations on the Case of a Woman who died with a Fœtus in the Fallopian Tube. By John Clarke, M.D.—In this case, a great part of the substance of the fœtus was discharged from an abscess communicating with the surface: but, the patient sunk under the process. It was a remarkable circumstance in the case, that pains resembling those of labour came on at the end of nine months from conception. The description of the dissection is illustrated by two engravings.

Account of a Case in which Death was brought on by a Hæmorrhage from the Liver. By G. Blane, M.D. &c.—The appearances in this case were remarkable:

> 'Upon laying open the abdomen, a large quantity of coagulated blood was discovered, covering the whole left side of the intestines. In exploring the source of this, several fissures were observed in the left lobe of the liver, which were about two-thirds of an inch in length, whence the blood had undoubtedly flowed, for they were found to lead to a cavity in the substance of the lobe of about the size of a pigeon's egg, and full of blood. The peritonæum, on the surface of that part of the liver which was near one of the fissures, was raised from the liver like a blister, full of coagulated blood. These appearances were on the lower surface of the lobe, but on the upper surface of the same lobe there was one fissure, round which was a similar collection of blood between the peritonæum and the substance of the liver, and it led to a small bloody cavity near the surface of the liver.'

We cannot, however, assent to the whole of Dr. Blane's reasoning on the subject.

An Account of the Croup, as it appeared in the Town and Neighbourhood of Chesham, in Buckinghamshire, in the Years 1793 *and* 1794. By Henry Rumsey, *Surgeon at Chesham.*—Mr. Rumsey did not find the antiphlogistic method of treatment successful in this epidemic: but his failure may have arisen from the late period of the disease (from the second to the third day) in which he was under the necessity of adopting it. He turned his attention very properly to other remedies, better suited to the advanced state of this rapid disease at which he was usually consulted; and he found repeated emetics, and large doses of calomel, extremely serviceable.—The cases are clearly stated, and the author seems perfectly candid in his reports of the effect of the different modes of treatment.

The Case of a young Woman who poisoned herself in the First Month of her Pregnancy. By Thomas Ogle, Surgeon, Great Russel-street, Bloomsbury. *To which is added an Account of the Appearances after Death,* by the late John Hunter.—The only remarkable circumstance, in the accurate statement of this dissection, is the invisibility of the fœtus at this early period of pregnancy. We shall extract the concluding remarks:

> ' The presence of a corpus luteum, the enlargement of the uterus, the newly formed vascular membrane, or decidua, lining the cavity, and the history of the case, sufficiently prove conception to have taken place; and the embryo being no where to be detected by an examination so accurate, and conducted by an anatomist so skilful in minute investigation, would induce a belief that the fœtus had not been sufficiently advanced to take on a regular form.
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> ' The appearances in the uterus, here described, the late Dr. Hunter in his lectures mentioned to have seen at a very early period after impregnation: so far they are not entirely new. The accuracy of the examination renders this case valuable, as it seems to enable us to decide a point hitherto not at all understood—That certain changes in the uterus not only take place previous to the reception of the fœtus, but that the fœtus does not acquire a visible form for some time after these changes have been made.'

Account of a Case of Diabetes, with an Examination of the Appearances after Death. By M. Baillie, M.D.—The kidneys, in this case, were in a diseased state; and the blood vessels were more numerous than they naturally are, so as to exhibit an appearance like inflammation. ' A very small quantity of a whitish fluid, a good deal resembling pus, was squeezed out from one or two infundibula in both kidnies, but there was no appearance of ulceration in either.'

In some very judicious remarks annexed to this paper, Dr. Baillie examines the most prevalent theories respecting the cause of diabetes. He shews, by very satisfactory arguments, the slight foundation on which the disease has been imputed to a deficiency in the assimilation of chyle; which was the opinion held by Dr. Cullen and Dr. Dobson. The theory of Dr. Darwin, which varied from the former only in the difficult conjecture which he super-added,—of a retrograde action in the lymphatic system, by which the chyle was carried to the kidnies, instead of passing into the thoracic duct,—is here powerfully controverted. The quick discharge of urine, 'after watery fluids have been drank,' is explained by Dr. Baillie to arise from the sympathy between the stomach and kidnies.

The author of this interesting paper does not substitute any theory of his own: but he seems inclined to attribute the disease to a morbid action in the kidnies themselves.

An Account of Two Cases, shewing the Existence of the Small-pox and the Measles in the same Person at the same Time. And an Account of a Case of Ague in a Child in Utero. By P. Russel, M. D. &c.—In these curious instances, the eruptions of the two diseases made their appearance together, and ran their course in a few days. The case of the ague in the unborn fœtus was well-marked.

Cases and Observations on Strangulated Hernia. By Everard Home, Esq.—Three cases are here particularly detailed. We shall insert the conclusions drawn from them at the close of the paper:

'From these cases we learn, that the symptoms correspond with the state of the intestine. When the stricture is only sufficient to compress the intestine, and to prevent the contents from passing through the strangulated part, there is vomiting, hickup, thirst, and general uneasiness, which symptoms come on some hours after the protrusion of the gut, and are very slow in their increase.

'When the stricture is in so great a degree as to produce inflammation on the compressed part of the gut, the symptoms come on immediately; the vomiting does not cease upon the stomach discharging its contents, but the retchings continue: there is a considerable tenderness over the whole belly; the pulse is quick and very small, and the spirits of the patient are much depressed. These symptoms are more or less violent, and their progress is more or less rapid, in proportion to the degree of the inflammation. If it only produces adhesions, the pulse is less contracted, there is less tenderness over the abdomen, and less depression of spirits.

'When the stricture is so tight as to obstruct the circulation of the blood in the part, all these symptoms are met with in the greatest degree of violence; an unusual coldness is felt over the surface of the body, and mortification takes place in the strangulated portion of the intestine.

'As in all the cases which I have stated there was an opportunity both of tracing the symptoms, and examining the state of the intestine, the conclusions which have been drawn are the more to be depended on; and should they be confirmed by future observations, they will assist us considerably in judging of the expediency of performing the operation at an earlier period in some cases than in others. I am induced to believe, that they are strongly in favour of immediate operation in cases which are in general thought to admit of delay.

'The femoral rupture, on account of the strength of Poupart's ligament, will be more liable to have the parts compressed in a greater degree, and consequently to be more violently affected by inflammation.

'In such cases the operation should be sooner performed; whereas, on the contrary, surgeons have been more inclined to delay it, from the difficulty and danger arising from the parts which are liable to be hurt in performing the operation.

'Constitutions are very differently affected by the same local mischief; some patients recover after mortification has taken place in the portion of strangulated intestine, while others sink under a much less violent degree of inflammation; it is therefore in general right, even in the most hopeless cases, to perform the operation. There is, however, one symptom that comes on in the last stage of this disease, which appears to be the immediate fore-runner of death, and after it has taken place, I apprehend the operation will always prove ineffectual. This is a general coldness, attended with moisture over the surface of the body; it is, to the feel, even colder than the skin of the same person when dead; but the real degree of cold (I believe) has never been measured by a thermometer.

'In every case I have met with, in which this symptom had taken place, the patient died; in some the operation was performed, in others it was not; but in all of them the patients continued to sink gradually, and in less than twenty-four hours expired.'

A fatal Case of Hernia of some of the Abdominal Viscera strangulated in the Cavity of the Thorax.—By John Clarke, M.D. In this singular case, a part of the colon was forced into the thorax, through an aperture in the diaphragm. We shall add Dr. Clarke's observations:

'Similar perforations of the diaphragm, with an intrusion of more or less of the abdominal viscera into the cavity of the thorax, have been sometimes found in children; but the patients have been soon destroyed after birth, by difficulty of respiration, from the lungs not being capable under such circumstances of being expanded. In these instances, the abdominal viscera have been sometimes found in the right, and sometimes in the left side of the chest.

'My enquiries have not furnished me with any other instances of strangulation, or even of perforation through the diaphragm.

'Several things in the history of this case, compared with the appearances after death, induce me to believe that the viscera had been for a long time in this unusual situation. The diminished size of the lung of the left side, his occasional costiveness for many years, the pain which he always felt from any pressure on his belly, and the pain in his shoulder, all favour this opinion. The liver too was smaller and softer than is natural: and such changes could not have taken place on a sudden.

'Whilst he lived regularly as to his meals, and the peristaltic motion was not disturbed, this unusual state of the viscera produced no remarkable symptoms; but if at any time he ate a larger meal than ordinary, he was subject to costiveness, and to a pain which he always referred to the epigastric region. At such times, it is probable that a larger quantity of fæces than usual was forced into the protruded gut, and against the perforation through the diaphragm, by which their passage was for a time impeded.

'This cause appears to have laid the foundation of his death. He had eaten voraciously, and had accelerated the passage of the food by a purgative; by which means a strangulation was brought on, so obstinate as to resist all the medicines employed for its removal.

'It is farther to be observed, that (considering the nature of the disease) the symptoms were more mild than is usual in cases of fatal constipation from strangulated hernia, introsusception, &c.—and that, although the portion of intestine and epiploon found in the cavity of the thorax, and a large part of the contents of the abdomen, were in a high degree of inflammation, yet the cavity of the thorax partook but in a slight degree of the disease.'

A case in which the omentum was pushed through an opening of the diaphragm, into the thorax, has been described by Dr. Ferriar, in the second volume of his "Medical Histories and Reflections;" (p. 43.) which seems to confirm Dr. Clarke's opinion, that this species of hernia may exist without producing any specific symptoms.

This paper is illustrated by two engravings.

On the Effect of the pure fixed Alkalis, and of Lime Water, in several Complaints. By G. Blane, M.D.—In consequence of finding strangury often relieved by the exhibition of pure kali, in cases in which the complaint arose merely from irritability, Dr. B. has been led to suppose that this remedy lessens the acrimony of the urine, by diminishing the quantity of lithic acid which it contains. Lime water, we are told, has a similar effect.

In indigestion, Dr. Blane, like most other practitioners, has employed these substances with success. He attributes their efficacy to their action on the *gastric acid.*

Lime water is said to be very useful as a lotion in the *gutta rosea,* which Dr. B. seems to attribute to an acid excretion.

An Account of a singular Disease in the great Intestines. By M. Baillie, M.D. &c.—In this extraordinary case, after violent pains in the stomach and bowels, and bloody purging, a portion of the colon was discharged by stool, three weeks before the patient's death. What particular change had occured in the cavity of the abdomen could not be ascertained, as an inspection of the body was not permitted.

An Account of an uncommon Tumour, formed in one of the Axillary Nerves. By Everard Home, Esq. &c.—Every fact, which extends our knowlege of the diseases of the nervous system, is valuable; these cases, therefore, merit the attentive perusal of medical readers. We shall insert the concluding remarks on this species of tumours:

'They may be distinguished *from other tumours* by a pain which is felt in the direction of the tumour, and in the part beyond it, even at the time when the tumour itself is moveable laterally in the surrounding parts. They may be also distinguished by the motion of the tumour, being chiefly in a lateral direction, but not in the direction of the nerve to any extent; and by the attempt to produce this longitudinal motion, being attended with considerable pain.

'In the removal of such tumours, we find that so far as we are justified in drawing conclusions from two instances, the taking away three inches of a nerve is productive of less violent effects than are occasioned by inflammation and suppuration in the substance of the nerve for an equal extent.

'The inflammation of a nerve like that of a tendon, appears to affect the general system in a greater degree than would be expected, by a man unacquainted with pathology, from the little severity of the symptoms, or sensation in the part affected.'

On the Use of the Application of Gastric Juice to Sores. By John Harness, M.D. Physician to the Fleet.—The efficacy of the gastric juice of bullocks and sheep, externally applied to irritable sphacelated ulcers, is placed in a strong point of view in these cases.

The Case of a Person who was shot through the Lungs, and survived for thirty-two years; with an Account of the Appearance of the Contents of the Thorax after Death. By Everard Home, Esq. &c.—This is the first account of the appearances after death, in the lungs of a patient who had survived their penetration by a shot. The description is very accurate, but cannot be abridged so as to enable us to insert it.

An Account of the Case of a Man who had no Evacuation from the Bowels for nearly fifteen Weeks before his death. By M. Baillie, M.D. &c.—A stricture at the beginning of the rectum was discovered on the dissection of this patient.

A Case of Rupture of the Uterus, from which the Woman recovered. By Thomas Haden, Surgeon at Derby.—This is a well-described case, in which Mr. Haden appears to have acted very judiciously. It gives additional support to the opinion that a rupture of the uterus is not inevitably fatal.

History of some Cases of Disease in the Brain, with an Account of the Appearances upon Examination after Death, and some general Observations on Complaints of the Head. By G. Blane, M.D. &c. —These cases, though they lead to no practical conclusion, are worthy of preservation an account of their singularity. In one of them, aneurismal affections of the carotid arteries within the head were discovered; the patient had been maniacal. In the other, where death had been preceded by chronic head-ach, a tumour about the size of a nutmeg was found in the place of the pineal gland.—There is nothing which requires observation in Dr. Blane's remarks on these appearances: but it is certainly proper for the physician to keep in view the possibility of such occurrences, in forming his opinion of affections of the head.

Observations on the Erysipelas. By William Charles Wells, M.D. &c.—The tendency of these remarks is to shew that erysipelas sometimes proves contagious; and the facts mentioned by Dr. Wells render this opinion sufficiently probable.

Observations on the Management of Cases in which the Face of the Child presents towards the Os Pubis. By John Clarke, M.D.—Dr. C. has discovered that a change of the position of the child's head may be readily effected in this troublesome case. We shall extract a short account of his method.

> 'The manner of effecting the change is, by introducing one or two fingers between the side of the head, near the coronal suture, and the symphysis pubis, and pressing steadily against the parietal, or frontal bone, during a labour pain. When this is done, it will be found, in most cases, that the head yields to the pressure, till at length the occiput is brought to the groin. This being effected, the rest should be left to the natural efforts of the woman.'

Additional Cases to illustrate Mr. Hunter's Method of performing the operation for the Cure of the Popliteal Aneurism. By Everard Home, Esq.—This is merely a supplement to a paper which we have already noticed in the 1st vol. of this work.

The Case of Paunchoo, an Inhabitant of the Village of Gundassee, in Pergunnah Humnabad, and Province of Tiperah, Bengal. By John Corse, Esq.—There was a prodigious enlargement of the scrotum in this case, with a confusion of the external parts. An affection somewhat resembling this has been observed among the natives of the coast of Africa. Paunchoo's disease was found incurable.

An Instance of the entire Want of Hair in the Human Body. Communicated by W. C. Wells, M.D.—The only singularity in this case consists in the patient having enjoyed good health, while the depilatory process continued.

History of a case of Aneurisms cured by a natural Process. By John Major Wilson, House Surgeon to the Westminster Hospital.—The subject of this paper is uncommonly interesting and important. That a disease so intractable as aneurism should sometimes be spontaneously removed by the gradual action of the system, though not a novelty, is at least an assertion of rare occurrence in medical books; and as the proofs of it are still very few, every addition to them is a very valuable acquisition. This was a case of popliteal aneurism originally, but the femoral artery of the other limb was enlarged in two places; the tumour in the ham burst, and discharged a large quantity of blood: instead of destroying the patient, however, the wound healed, and the aneurisms in the other limb spontaneously disappeared.

Experiments and Observations on the Growth of Bones, from the Papers of the late Mr. Hunter. By Everard Home, Esq.—The drift of this paper is to controvert the claims of Dr. Monro of Edinburgh to certain discoveries on this subject, and to oppose some doctrines formerly advanced by him. Concerning this anatomical warfare, we thought the public had long ago decided, and we are sorry to see it renewed in any manner. It is high time that a peace should be established between the contending parties.

Case of an Extra-Uterine Fœtus discharged by the Rectum. By Mr. Mainwaring, Apothecary.—We have here a very minute and satisfactory detail of an uncommon case. The process of expulsion occupied two years and about two weeks!—Yet the patient recovered, and enjoyed uninterrupted good health after the termination of the discharge.

Case of Pregnancy, in which the Ovum had become diseased, and was entirely filled with small Hydatids. By Everard Home, Esq. —It is here supposed by Mr. Home, that the growth of the fœtus was prevented by the formation of hydatids in the amnion, as no fœtus could be discovered in the ovum.

Case of a strangulated Hernia, where the Operation succeeded after the Obstruction had continued eight Days. By Henry Fryer, Surgeon at Stamford.—The success of the operation, in this case, was very remarkable. Mr. Fryer did not see the patient till the eighth day after the obstruction; and the patient's life appears to have been saved by the judicious use of cathartics subsequent to the operation.

Account of a singular Disease in the Upper Maxillary Sinus. By John Abernethy, F. R. S.—This disease was an exostosis of great size, accompanied with a fungus. It was of several years standing, and admitted of no relief.

Some Observations on the Combination of Medicines. By George Fordyce, M. D. &c.—If we wished to exhibit the mode of delivering *truisms*, with some appearance of order and science, we might extract many curious specimens from this paper. The result of the whole is, that, when the combination of two or more medicines is found by experience to answer a particular purpose better than either of the ingredients singly given, the combination ought to be preferred. Some useful practical remarks, however, appear in this waste of words; like the islands of grass amid the desarts of Arabia.

The Operation of puncturing the Bladder above the Pubis, and through the Rectum, illustrated by Cases. By Everard Home, Esq.—The cases in which this operation becomes necessary are fortunately rare. Mr. Home's particular details of the symptoms which demand it, and of the mode of performing it, will be very useful to those who may be called to put it in practice.

On the whole, this volume contains much useful and interesting matter; and we recommend it to the attention of our professional readers.

Art. XV. *A Review of the Origin, Progress, and Result of the late decisive War in Mysore,* in a Letter from an Officer in India, with Notes; and an Appendix, comprising the Whole of the Secret State Papers found in the Cabinet of Tippoo Sultaun, at Seringapatnam; taken from the Originals:—Containing, his Correspondence with the French, Zemaun Shah, &c. from the Year 1796, with a View to the Overthrow of the British Empire in India; the separate written Opinions of his principal Officers of State on that Measure; and an Autograph of the Sultaun's Hand writing, in his last Letter to the Governor General: also a Dedication to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, &c. &c. By M. Wood, Esq. M. P. Colonel, and late Chief Engineer, Bengal. And a Map shewing the Extent of the Dominions of Tippoo Sultaun, and their Partition between the allied Powers, the English, the Mahrattas, and the Nizam. 4to. 15s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

It may truly be urged that the Marquis Cornwallis displayed great magnanimity, by entering (in 1792) into negotiations with the Sultan of Mysor, before the gates of his capital; when a short time must probably have reduced the place, and left the vanquished Prince no alternative but unconditional submission. It was a magnanimity, however, and an instance of mercy, which produced no suitable effect on the Sultan's vindictive mind. The loss of territory, of treasure, and of fame, (the consequence of his unprovoked and unsuccessful hostilities,) incessantly urged him to attempt their recovery, with additional means and more extensive resources. The debarkation of a French army on the coasts of the Decan, and an invasion of Bengal by the forces of Zeman Shah, from the north, were the measures which he contemplated for that purpose. The papers found in his cabinet, while they elucidate his machinations designed to accomplish those ends, convey the highest encomium on the vigorous and prudent counsels, which, amid much pecuniary embarrassment, anticipated his destructive designs; and crushed them, with their bold projector, for ever.

We believe that our readers will prefer a connected narrative of the circumstances which preceded the destruction of the Mysor usurpation, to a desultory notice of the contents of this volume *; which are indeed too multifarious to admit of such a report.

As early as the month of March 1796, Tippu dispatched ambassadors to the court of Zeman Shah, to instigate that Prince to an invasion of Hindustan, for the extermination of the infidels; under which name he comprized the English and the Mahrattas. At the close of the following year, deceived by the interested misrepresentations of a French adventurer named Ripaud, he sent ambassadors to the Mauritius, to demand a powerful military succour, and to solicit an alliance offensive and defensive with the French republic. Though the sentiments of this unhappy Prince were decidedly hostile to the English, they were also extremely unfavourable to the French; as were those of his council. One of the latter expresses himself as follows: "This Ripaud that is come, God knows what Ass it is; whence it comes, and for what purpose.—The French are not firm to their engagements; when, through the assistance of the Rhodadad Sircar they shall have obtained possession of territory, perhaps they will not adhere to their engagements." At this time, Tippu seemed desirous to acquire some information of the political situation of Great Britain; and the result of his inquiries, minuted in his own hand writing, cannot fail to amuse our readers. "Names of the three islands, belonging to the English: Ireland—Guernsey—Jersey. On the English island, there was once the Rajah of a tribe called Coosseea, (écossais, Scotch); a hundred years ago, the English Rajah put the Rajah of the Coosseeas to death, and took possession of his country."

Previously to the departure of the Ambassadors for the isle of France, there appears to have been a party of 60 Frenchmen, in the service of Tippu Sultan. The arrival of M. Ripaud (who was scarcely able to write his name) communicated the democratic frenzy to these wretched persons, who instantly met in a primary assembly; burnt the colours under which they had hitherto served; planted the tree of liberty; conferred the title of "Citoyen Prince Tipou" on a ferocious and bigotted tyrant; and declaimed in their meetings in favor

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* Of which the Appendix constitutes two-thirds.

of equality and freedom, in defiance of all grammar and common sense. On the arrival of the Ambassadors at the Mauritius, they were publicly received by the Governor in that capacity, who issued a proclamation encouraging the inhabitants to engage in the service of the Sultan. The transaction soon reached the ears of the English Governor General, who took immediate measures to counteract the effects of the proposed confederacy.

While the military preparations were going forwards, the Sultan was informed of the detection of his intrigues; and he was urged by Lord Mornington to consent to receive an Ambassador to conciliate all differences between the states. Denial and evasion only were produced by these remonstrances. In consequence, the army commanded by General Harris, consisting of 5000 Europeans and 14,000 natives, entered the Mysore dominions from the east at the same time that the Bombay army under General Stuart penetrated from the west. The campaign commenced by an unexpected attack on the latter, on the 5th March 1799, when they scarcely had reached the boundary of the Sultan's territory: it was made with every advantage, from the dispersed situation of the encampment, yet the result was a decisive victory to the Bombay troops. 'A few days after, as soon probably as he heard of General Harris having entered Mysor, he turned to the east to meet the army of Madras. He did meet it, and was again defeated on the 27th of the same month.'

On the 7th of April, General Harris sat down before Seringapatnam, and on the 14th was joined by the army under General Stuart. An attempt was made by Tippu to arrest the progress of the siege by negotiation: but just at this period, 'a most alarming, and hitherto unaccounted for deficiency of grain was discovered,' in the English camp; a circumstance which rendered the most energetic measures indispensible. The terms proposed by General Harris met with no reply; 'and as if to close every avenue to negotiation or forgiveness, Tippu ordered all the prisoners he had taken to be barbarously murdered.'

'On the 30th of April, the breaching battery opened against the walls of Seringapatnam, and on the 3d of May, the breach being deemed practicable, dispositions were made for the storm, which, on the 4th at noon, were most gallantly, rapidly, and successfully executed. In this assault, Tippu lost his life in the 45th year of his age. On a careful investigation it was found, that the wife of Crisna Raj Uriar, the Prince who reigned at the time of Hyder Ali's usurpation, was still alive, and that the surviving representative of that persecuted family was a boy of five years of age.'

‘ Vellor in the Carnatic has been allotted for the residence of Tippu's sons, and the females of his and his father's Harams; and an allowance of 80,000l. sterling is fixed annually for their maintenance. The relative value of the territory bestowed on the young Prince now seated on the throne of his ancestors, and of that acquired by the allies in virtue of the partition treaty, must not, indeed, be appreciated solely by the revenue which they produce, but may derive additional advantages from their local situation, natural productions, and peculiar manufactures. The revenue of the territory ceded to the Rajah of Mysor is valued at 560,000l.; of that acquired by the English, at 200,000l.; the cession to the Nizam 200,000l.; and that to the Mahrattas at 120,000l. The aggregate will shew the amount of Tippu's revenues, and how grossly they have been exaggerated by writers in this country. This propensity to magnify the revenue and resources of the Indian Princes is so general, that we feel it our duty to caution the public against such statements. Major Taylor, in a late work *, has stated the revenue of Hydernagor (one of the provinces acquired by the company) at 18 lacs of Mangalor Pagodas, value 14 rupees each: substituting 4 for 14, (which is doubtless a typographical error,) it amounts by the Major's statement to 720,000l. per annum, whereas the official documents reduce it to 120,000l. We have to regret a similar mistake in the work before us; where it is stated that, ‘The revenues of Zeman Shah have not been ascertained. Those he collects from the two provinces of Casmir and Jamboor only are said to amount to two or three millions sterling.’ Mr. Forster, whose authority is the best procureable on this point, states the whole revenue of the Abdalli Prince at only one million, of which Casmir only yields 70,000l. With Jamboor we are totally unacquainted; if Jumbhu be meant, it is possessed by an independent Rajah.

The editor of this volume remarks that the Cali Yuga commenced with the fourth incarnation of Vishnu: but, according to the Hindu mythology, nine incarnations of the preserving Deity preceded the commencement of that æra.

From the title page of this work, the reader might conclude that Col. Wood was the writer of it: but the dedication only is from that Gentleman's pen, and the name of the author of the *Review of the War* does not appear.

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* See Review for May last, vol. xxxii. p. 90.

Art. XVI. *A Journey from India, towards England,* in the Year 1797; by a Route commonly called Over-land, through Countries not much frequented, and many of them hitherto unknown to Europeans, particularly between the Rivers Euphrates and Tygris, through Curdistan, Diarbek, Armenia, and Natolia, in Asia; and through Romalia, Bulgaria, Wallachia, and Transylvania, in Europe: illustrated by a Map and other Engravings. By John Jackson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 277. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

That portion of the immense continent of Asia, which extends from the shores of the Mediterranean to the Indian ocean, has of late been so frequently traversed in various directions, by gentlemen going to or returning from India, and so many of their itineraries have been submitted to the public, that these regions are become almost as familiar to the readers of travels, as the numerous writers of tours on the continent had already rendered certain countries of Europe. From Basora to Aleppo, by the route of the great desert, a tract is exhibited which, from the arid nature of the soil, and the consequent want of inhabitants, is little calculated to furnish information or incidents that are likely to excite attention. The route pursued by Mr. Jackson presents a different picture; it lay through countries which are by many supposed to have been the seats of early civilization, and which in much more recent times displayed the splendor and luxury of extensive empire: asserted the prowess of its arms, pointed by religious enthusiasm; and owned the benign influence of the fine arts, in the multitude of their literary compositions. The observations of an impatient traveller, however, whose principal object is dispatch, will prove very inadequate to the gratification of a laudable curiosity.

The banks of the Shat al Arab (the united streams of the Euphrates and Tygris) are planted with date trees; under the shade of which, the Arabian husbandmen cultivate their fields, till the approach of the sandy desert puts a period to their labors. The city of Basora is seated contiguous to it, and is very large and extremely populous. The Bazar or market-place is nearly two miles long, and appears to be well supplied. Our superfine broad cloth, and our watches, will here sell for more than double what they cost in England. The majority of the people are Arabs, the rest are Turks and Armenians; the latter are the merchants, and some of them very respectable. The ships from Basora to Bombay, or Bengal, usually receive a full cargo; the greater part of which consists of copper in small cakes, and drugs of various kinds; and the Bombay ships generally take dried fruits. It is very seldom, however, that a vessel sails to any part of India without taking a considerable number of Arab horses. There are many instances of ships carrying away silver, in bars and specie, to the amount of 20 lacs of rupees; the specie chiefly in Spanish dollars and Venetian sequins. The greatest part of the trade of this branch of the Turkish empire is in the hands of the Armenians; who, when they have a considerable sum on hand, in order to prevent the Turks from laying hold of it, (which is sometimes the case,) export it to India, where they often receive 12 per cent. interest, usually remitted to them in piece goods. Considerable sums are sent for this purpose from Constantinople; and we learn that the quantity of copper exported from Basora to India increases so fast as to interfere with the company's outward cargoes. 'The Arabs, with a very little pay, are enabled to support their families; for their dress costs them little; and their food consists of dates, bread, and water, with which they are perfectly satisfied; and indeed, though their food is so simple, they have, generally speaking, twice the strength of Europeans, and are able to endure much more fatigue.'

Mr. Jackson sailed up the river to Corno, a small village situated at the confluence of the Euphrates and Tygris. Though Bagdad is situated on the latter, yet, to avoid its circuitous windings, the first part of the navigation is usually performed on the former; and this by dragging the vessel, in opposition to the current, at the rate of about 3 miles in an hour. The most considerable town on this part of the Euphrates is named by Mr. Jackson, Suke-shue. Its chief was then absent with an army collected 'to oppose the progress of the Waahy, who is extending his conquests up the western shore of the Persian gulph, almost as high as Grain; and propagating a new religion, which, like Mahomet, he enforces by the sword.' We regret that Mr. Jackson has not furnished us with some farther particulars of the extraordinary person abovementioned, Abdul Wahib, who now shakes the religion of Mohammed at its source. Of his manner of propagating his system of faith, we may form some opinion from a circumstance afterward related:

> 'The chief of Suke-shue was slain, while asleep in his tent, by a slave belonging to the Waahy. This happened only a week ago: the news arrived soon after we came to Bagdad, and has very much alarmed the government, because much confidence was placed in the superior abilities of the Sheik, and he was fully relied upon to check the progress of the Waahy, who immediately after attacked and defeated the Turkish army, and it was apprehended that he would reach Basora.'

A branch of the Tygris falls into the Euphrates at Gomeric; and the author proceeded up it, through a country extremely desolate, though bearing evident marks of former culture. The towns of Vasit and Hie are situated on this branch, the inhabitants of which are justly dreaded for their barbarous treatment of travellers. A small army of Turkish soldiers was incamped on the banks of the Tygris, which our author (through misinformation) calls Shat al Amara. There is a small town of that name in the vicinity, whence the inhabitants of that place may have called it the Amara river, but Dijela is its only Arabic name; it is here about a mile broad, with very steep banks. Mr. Jackson did not stop to view the ruins of Ctesiphon, whose lofty walls and towers still cover the abrupt sides of the declivities which overhang the Tygris.

Bagdad is a large and populous city, extending three miles along the eastern bank of the river; and the length of the walls from the river being about two miles, it has the form of an oblong square. 'The houses, though very inferior to the European, are much better built than those of Basora, but nearly in the same style. Many of the public buildings, such as mosques, minarets, and hummums, are constructed of hewn stone, and make a very handsome appearance. Here is also an extensive Bazar, which is well supplied with variety of articles; but the prices are in general much higher than at Basora.' Scorpions, tarantulas, and other noxious insects were very numerous. All persons at this season of the year sleep on the tops of their houses. The environs of Bagdad to the west and north are altogether barren; to the east, there are excellent gardens; and the opposite bank of the river supplies a great variety of fruits and vegetables. 'Bagdad at present is supposed to contain more treasure than any city of equal size in the world: and the immense quantity of specie and bullion found in the coffers of the late Kya, or Prime Minister, (amounting to upwards of three millions sterling) seems to warrant such a conjecture.'

Mr. Jackson proceeded on horseback from Bagdad to Mosul, the capital of Curdistan, and supposed by the orientals to be the antient Niniveh; which name, indeed, it still retains. His route thither lay some miles north from the Tygris, and extended through a number of towns and cultivated regions, as well as tracts of a different description. The wild hogs which infest the latter are of an enormous size, and a deep red colour. The country yields much bitumen.

Near the summit of a mountain, Mr. J. found several naptha pits. These are dug out of the rock, at about three feet deep, and into them the naptha oozes in a thick liquid, having a very strong smell, nearly resembling that of our coal tar. Just above these pits, were several rocks of salt.

From a want of knowlege of the Arabic language, and from the ignorance of those with whom he conversed, Mr. Jackson has been led into a variety of mistakes in the names of places. —He passed through Arbil, meaning Arbela, famous for the defeat of Darius.) 'It exhibits the remains of an old castle on the top of an artificial hill on the west side of the town, and in the vicinity are several naptha pits.' The hills of this country are distinguished for the singularity of their appearance. 'We soon found ourselves among some hills shaped like hay-cocks, which appear to have been so formed by water, being covered with pebbles and shells, like those usually seen on the sides of rivers.' The principal river, which augments the volume of the Tygris in the course of this tract, is the Zab, which Mr. Jackson calls Zarp.

'Mosul is a very large town, and contains many handsome buildings exclusive of the hummums, mosques, and minarets, which are all built of hewn stone. Here is not so much reserve of manners as in the cities to the eastward, women of all descriptions being nearly as much exposed as in Europe. The town is very populous, and comprises men of various religions; but the great bulk of the inhabitants are Curds. The Bazar is large and well supplied; and most of the articles, except cloathing, are very moderate. Various manufactories are carried on, and in some they excel the Europeans. Their saddles and trappings for horses, in particular, are very elegant. They also make carpets of silk, with flowers worked in them, which seem to vie with the best of our manufactures. They are also very dexterous in making edgings and trimmings of various kinds, both for men and women. Their manufactories in copper and iron too are very numerous.'—'The town is surrounded by a strong lofty wall built with hewn stone. The space within the wall is not entirely occupied with houses, many places being covered with ruins, which proves that it has once been much more populous than at present.'

These ruins extend to a great distance on the banks of the river.

If the hills that are shaped like a hay-cock be admitted to be of natural origin, which the marine exuviæ certainly indicate, we should hesitate to admit Mr. Jackson's conclusion respecting the artificial construction of those which he mentions in the following paragraph:

'Near this rivulet is a lofty mound of earth, which commands an extensive prospect over the plain. On the top of this mound, the Sheikh kept a watch the whole day to prevent a surprize. Of those lofty mounds of earth there are many in this country, and they are no doubt artificial, as they always stand singly on extensive plains. They must, however, have cost much labour, some of them being extremely large.'

From Mosul to Diarbekir, Mr. Jackson's route lay south of the Tygris, through a country formerly well cultivated, but now neglected. Mardin was in his course.

> 'It is situated at the top of a very lofty and rugged mountain, is a city of considerable size, and very populous. The greater part of the inhabitants are Armenians, who are very industrious, and carry on several manufactories. The city is surrounded by a strong and lofty wall built with hewn stone; and on the summit of the mountain is a strong fort, on which a few cannon are mounted.'—
>
> 'The inhabitants, who seem to be a hospitable well disposed people, enjoy a pure air, have as fair complexions as the people in England, and in general appear ruddy and healthy. Many of the women are very beautiful, and expose their persons nearly as much as the ladies in Europe. Provisions, and vegetables in particular, are plentiful, good, and cheap; they have also most kinds of fruits, and of the finest quality, the climate being exceedingly hot in the valleys, and temperate on the mountains.'

After having quitted Mardin, the author found the Arabic language gradually laid aside; and Turkish became the prevailing idiom.—Diarbekir was next visited. This capital of a country bearing the same name is pleasantly situated on an eminence, on the western bank of the Tygris, populous, and abounding in flourishing manufactures.

Our limits will not admit of extracting so copiously as we could have wished, from this plain and unadorned narrative of a writer, who passed expeditiously through a country which is interesting on a variety of accounts, and is but imperfectly known to Europeans. We must now confine ourselves, therefore, to little more than a bare indication of his route, till we have conducted him to the borders of Europe; where we shall take our leave.

The route from Diarbekir to Gaban Medan lay through a tract intersected by very steep mountains, abounding in copper. It is wrought for the Turkish government, who have established a number of smelting houses for the purpose, and is exported in great quantities to Basora and other places. An extensive waste stretches from Gaban Medan to Sivas, which is infested by banditti, who proved extremely troublesome to Mr. Jackson, though he was provided with a military escort. Sivas is the antient Sebastia, capital of Cappadocia, washed by the Casalmac, (formerly the Ceraunius.) It is as large as Liverpool, and (Mr. Jackson thinks) as populous. On this supposition, the country in question must be much better peopled than it is generally imagined to be; for we meet with three towns, all stated to be as large as Sivas, viz. Tocat (probably Neocesarea), Amasia (the birth-place of Strabo), and Marsivan. The interjacent country is represented as fruitful in a high degree, populous, and intersected by mountains of great height, the sides of which are nearly perpendicular.—From Marsivan, the author proceeded through Tosie, Boli, Sabanja, Ismit, (we suspect, Nicmid or Nicomedia,) where he came to the sea, and thence to Scutari and Constantinople, which he reached in about seven weeks after his departure from Basora; the journey being thus performed in the months of July and August.

We conclude that Mr. Jackson was not extremely solicitous to collect observations on the history, civil and natural, of the countries through which he passed: but, had it been otherwise, the time would not have admitted of those inquiries. Such remarks as he has committed to paper are delivered with perspicuity and judgment.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For SEPTEMBER, 1800.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, &c.

Art. 17. *An Essay on the Nature and Connection of Heat, Electricity, and Light.* By Alexander Anstruther, Esq. of Madras, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 61. 2s. Murray and Highley. 1800.

THE identity of electricity with heat and light was, some years ago, a favourite speculation with several philosophers, when the discoveries respecting the electric fluid were objects of general admiration. Mr. Anstruther has revived the same supposition, but on theoretical grounds only. As it appears that his essay was written in 1798, we shall only refer him to the very interesting experiments of Count Rumford; which have discovered new relations, though they have not ascertained the essence, of heat. The facts, on this most curious subject, cannot yet lead to so general a conclusion as that at which Mr. Anstruther aims.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 18. *Observations on the Danger of a premature Peace.* By Alexander Annesley. 8vo. 1s. Murray and Highley. 1800.

The zealous advocates for unceasing war are like the man in the gospel; they "*do not sit down and count the cost.*" Peace in some respects *may be dangerous*, but protracted war, at an expence of 64 millions *per ann. must eventually be ruin.* If peace must not be made till improbabilities, or even impossibilities, are accomplished, no hope can be entertained of the return of the blood-stained sword to its scabbard.—After the years that have been consumed in war, can peace now be *premature?* Is it not high time to try its efficacy, and to see whether our aim cannot be obtained as completely by its mild influence, as by the horrid energies of the opposite system? The arguments of Mr. Annesley would go to prove, that we ought not to make peace with France till we have destroyed her geographical situation, or have prevented the possibility of her having any trade.

Art. 19. *A Letter to the Hon. Charles James Fox*, and the other Members in Opposition; on the present State of Europe, the Restoration of the House of Bourbon, and Peace with the French Republic. By Count Zenobio. Translated from the French. 8vo. 1s. Ridgeway. 1800.

Unlike the author of the preceding pamphlet, Count Zenobio urges an immediate peace, and the abandonment of every idea of restoring the House of Bourbon to the functions of royalty in France. He endeavours to impress his readers with a conviction of the impolicy of maintaining the present bloody contest, which he attributes solely to the British Ministry.

In the first edition of this pamphlet, the Count had called Mr. Pitt *vile*: but he here retracts the epithet, and allows that the term does not belong to him. He owns, also, that the British nation has deserved well of humanity.

Art. 20. *The Rev. Arthur O'Leary's Address to the Lords Spiritual and Temporal of the Parliament of Great Britain*; to which is annexed, an Account of Sir Henry Mildmay's Bill relative to Nuns. 8vo. 2s. Booker.

This title prepared us to expect a discussion of the subject of monastic institutions: but, on perusal, we found that the pamphlet is chiefly employed in vindicating the catholics against the aspersions of protestants. Though we do not altogether admire Mr. O'Leary's method of treating his subject, we are ready to allow that catholics have ground for complaint. The present race of catholic priests may be misrepresented, but they should honestly confess that the court of Rome did formerly make a trade of indulgences; they may also plead for the privilege of celibacy, but they should allow that it is not a natural state, and that it is not wise in a country to countenance and endow it.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 21. *A Treatise on the Culture of Wheat.* By William Dalrymple, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Becket. 1800.

We are not desirous of resembling the vulgar herd of agriculturists who laugh at gentlemen-farmers. We would rather encourage men of science and property to make experiments in every province of rural economy; persuaded that, though all may not reap profit and fame, the general result will be the improvement of the most useful of all professions. To us, therefore, Col. Dalrymple may spare himself the trouble of making an apology for this publication; which affords a proof that, whether or not his retirement at Chessington has been *otium cum dignitate*, it has been *otium cum scientiâ*. He modestly tells us that there is little new in his treatise: but it shews that he has read with judgment, and has ably conducted himself in practice amid a mass of discordant opinions. He commences with an useful fact respecting the growth of wheat, noticed by Dr. Hunter, of York, that it has two sets of roots, one *seminal* and the c *coronal*; that these are connected by a small pipe; that, when seed is rightly sown, they are kept at a proper distance, so that crown may be nourished by the seminal roots during the winter; that, by the vigorous absorption of the coronal roots, in the su quent progress of vegetation, strong and numerous stalks may a up, and produce a quantity of perfect grain.

On this principle, Col. D. proceeds to consider the prop culture of wheat. In strong land, he asserts the advantage of *su* *fallowing*, especially where plenty of manure is not to be procu and we believe that he is right: for, as Mr. Marshall has obse strong land requires the pulverizing system, as the light land req to be made more compressed and adhesive.

The Colonel next dicusses the subject of *manures*; quotes Pl to prove the utility of marle (*marga*) for manuring light land; then recommends what appears to him the best mode of making applying the manures in general use. He gives a very good re for disapproving of top-dressings on strong land.

On the subject of *seed*, he recommends that it should be chang gives it as his opinion that *white* wheats are best suited to light, *brown* to strong soils; and he reasons very clearly against efficacy of steeps for wheat. As to smutty wheat, he thi with Tull, that it is a token of *mala stamina*. This vegetable dis does not appear to be yet well understood.

The *time of sowing wheat* on strong lands, it is observed, sh not be later than the end of October, or the beginning of Nov ber; and the best mode of sowing (on strong land) is *broadcast* a *furrow*; the drill husbandry cannot be practised on this land; does he recommend dibbling; and the seed, to make the sem and coronal roots both perfect, should not be deposited in the gro less than two, nor more than three inches deep. In the successio crops, Col. D. recommends wheat only every fifth year.—He ma also some remarks on sheep-feeding, and on harvesting of wh concluding with some general observations on the improvemen agriculture.

We have thus glanced at the contents of this pamphlet; wl proves the author to be an intelligent and reflecting Gentlen farmer, who, in his rural avocations, is attentive to the good of country.—It is dedicated to the Duke of Clarence, who, we un stand, has lately paid some attention to agriculture; and who w no doubt, avail himself of the hints of his judicious friend Col. D rymple, in his farming experiments in Bushy Park.

Art. 22. *The Scarcity of Wheat considered*; or, a Statement of Impolicy of the late and present Price of Wheat, the Conseque resulting from it, and Means suggested for its Prevention in fut in which the flagrant Practices of Farmers, Millers, and Bakers, exposed, and the Corn Laws fully investigated. By the Re Malham, Vicar of Hilton, Dorset; and Ordinary of the Co Gaol of Wilts. 8vo. 1s. Wallis.

That bread should now rise in price, after so abundant and fav able a harvest, is an indisputable proof of contrivance and managem

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between the growers and buyers of corn; which it is easier to reprobate than to counteract, without interfering with the freedom of trade. When the times are favourable to monopoly, monopolists will prevail. When wealth gets into few hands; when agriculturists can without inconvenience to themselves withhold from the public the produce of their farms; and when what is brought to the markets is bought up by a few all-grasping purchasers; the articles of the first necessity will increase in price.

Yet it is not perhaps so much as this writer suggests, that *wheat* is dear because farms are large, as because the circumstances of the times have aided their operation against the public. The advantages of small farms to the community are considerable; yet it must be recollected that grain has been at a reasonable rate since the system of throwing farms together under one tenant has prevailed. It will be said that this evil is continually growing; we fear that it is; and the vast sums gained by agriculturists, from the late and present high prices, must assist the great farmer in swallowing up the little one, and in giving him a command over the public supply.

LAW.

Art. 23. *The Trial at large of John Rusby, Corn-Factor*, for Regrating Corn, at the Corn Exchange, Mark Lane, London, 8th November last; tried before Lord Kenyon and a Special Jury, in the Court of King's Bench, Guildhall, the 4th of July, 1800. Taken in Short-hand by a Barrister of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

At this season, particularly, the present cause is a very momentous one. Lord Kenyon's remarks, in summing up to the jury, manifest great ability and public spirit; and his compliment to the jury, on finding the defendant *guilty*, evinces his sense of the melancholy consequences resulting from the evil practice with which the defendant was charged. "You have conferred the greatest benefit on the country, I believe, that any jury almost ever did."

Art. 24. *Reports of Cases argued and determined* in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber, and in the House of Lords, from Easter Term 36 Geo. III. 1796, to Trinity Term 39 Geo. III. 1799, both inclusive, with Tables of the Cases and principal Matters. By John Bernard Bosanquet, of Lincoln's Inn, and Christopher Puller, of the Inner Temple. Vol. Ist. Folio. pp. 700. 1l. 19s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

In our 24th volume N. S. we announced the first number of this work, and we now gladly inform our readers that the volume is completed. Mr. Blackstone's valuable reports were brought down to the end of Hilary Term in the year 1796, and at that period the present publication commences. The authors state that the cases reported from Easter Term in the 36th year of the present King to Hilary Term in the 37th year, both inclusive, were taken from notes with which Mr. Abraham Moore favoured them; and that they have bestowed their utmost attention in digesting and arranging them. Indeed this part of the work, and the whole contents of the volume before us, shew evident marks of accuracy and diligence. Many of the cases are of the utmost consequence, and are detailed with the strictest fidelity; and the notes, which frequently accompany them, prove that their authors have omitted no opportunity, and have spared no labour, in rendering their publication acceptable to the profession: these notes are apposite and judicious.

The first number of the second volume has appeared, and begins with last Michaelmas Term, when Sir John Scott (the late Attorney General) was appointed to succeed the late Lord Chief Justice Eyre, and took his seat in the Court of Common Pleas, with the title of Lord Eldon.

Art. 25. *Principles of Conveyancing;* designed for the Use of Students, with an Introduction on the Study of that Branch of Law. By Charles Watkins, Esq: of the Middle Temple. 8vo. pp. 180. 4s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

Mr. Watkins is already known to the profession as the author of several useful and ingenious publications, and we have more than once borne willing testimony to his merit. The present work is a judicious compilation, and will be found particularly serviceable to students, for whose use it was principally designed. We must not, however, omit to observe that many of the remarks contained in the introduction appear to be dictated by a spirit of arrogance, and are expressed in offensive language. The observations on Lord Kenyon's decisions in the cases of *Doe* on the demise of *Rigge* against *Bell*, and *Clayton* against *Blakey*, are disrespectful, if not ill-founded. We have regretted in silence, on other occasions, the appearance of presumption in this writer: but in the present instance it has so much exceeded former bounds, that it loudly demands reprehension.

Art. 26. *A Report of the Case of Horner against Liddiard*, on the Question of what Consent is necessary to the Marriage of illegitimate Minors; determined on the 24th May 1799, in the Consistorial Court of London, by the Right Hon. Sir William Scott, Chancellor of the Diocese; with an introductory Essay on the Theory and the History of Laws relating to illegitimate Children, and to the Encouragement of Marriage in general. By Alexander Croke, Esq. LL. D. Advocate in Doctors-Commons. 8vo. pp. 200. 5s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

This is a very material case, and involves extensive and important interests in its decision.—The facts are shortly these:

'Harriet Liddiard, otherwise Whitelock, was the natural daughter of Sarah Liddiard by John Whitelock, Esq. and was born on the 12th of September 1777. Mr. Whitelock died in 1788, and by his last will, bearing date the 30th of April 1787, in which he appointed Sarah Liddiard, and George Ashley, since deceased, his executors, he acknowledged Harriet Liddiard, otherwise Whitelock, as his natural child, and bequeathed certain parts of his personal property to his executors upon trust, to put the same out at interest, until Harriet Whitelock should attain the age of twenty-one years, or be married, with the consent and approbation of the said Sarah Liddiard and George Ashley, or the survivor of them; the interest in the meantime to be laid out in her board, maintenance, clothes, and education; and to pay her the whole, when she should so attain the age of twenty-one years, or be married with such consent; and it was his will and desire that all possible care should be taken of the said Harriet Whitelock; and he gave the tuition and care of her to Sarah Liddiard and George Ashley during her minority. On the 7th day of March 1796, a marriage was solemnized between Thomas Strangeways Horner, Esq. and the said Harriet Liddiard, otherwise Whitelock, spinster, by virtue of a licence, under seal of the Consistory Court of the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury; wherein Harriet Liddiard is described as a minor, and wherein it is stated, that the marriage was solemnized by and with the consent of Sarah Liddiard, there stiled Sarah Whitelock, widow, her mother and guardian; and which consent was in fact obtained. In February 1799, a suit was instituted by Mr. Horner in the Consistorial Court of London against Harriet Liddiard, otherwise Whitelock, falsely calling herself Horner, spinster, and pretending to be the wife of the said Thomas Strangeways Horner, to obtain a sentence, pronouncing and declaring the said marriage to have been null and void, pursuant to the act of the 26th year of King George the Second, chapter the 33d, usually called *The Marriage Act*, which enacts, in section the 11th, "that all marriages, solemnized by licence, where either of the parties, not being a widower or widow, shall be under the age of twenty-one years, which shall be had without the consent of the father of such of the parties, so under age, (if then living) first had and obtained, or if dead, of the guardian or guardians of the person of the party so under age, lawfully appointed, or one of them; and in case there shall be no such guardian, or guardians, then of the mother (if living and unmarried), or if there shall be no mother living and unmarried, then of a guardian or guardians of the person appointed by the Court of Chancery; shall be absolutely *null and void* to all intents and purposes whatsoever."

It was admitted on the argument, and by the judge, that illegitimate children fall under the general regulations of the Marriage Act; and indeed that point had been previously determined in the case of *The King* against *The Inhabitants of Hodnett*, H. 26 Geo. 3. 1 T.R. 97. The only question for the opinion of the court, in this case, was what consent was necessary, besides that of the contracting parties, one of them being a minor, to render the marriage valid. Sir William Scott, in examining that question, decided that the marriage was null and void, on account of the want of the *proper additional consent*; he being of opinion that the consent of the parents in the case of illegitimate minors is not the consent required by the act of parliament, that extending to *legal* parents alone: but that the consent of a guardian, appointed by the Court of Chancery, was necessary in all instances circumstanced like the present, to give validity to the marriage. In the course of his judgment, which is very able and elaborate, he admits that the dscision of the case of *The King* against *Edmonton*, E. 24 Geo. 3. (reported in Const's edition of Bott, p. 76) is in opposition to his sentiments; for it was there determined that a *female bastard* under age, married by licence, with the consent of her putative father, gains a *settlement* by virtue of such *marriage*; and justice

Buller, in delivering his opinion, says:—" It is not nec a decisive opinion on the construction of the marriag this case is within the act, or it is not. If within to consent but the putative father, and nobody by a more strict construction, the act is hel where there is a lawful father, then this c consent was necessary."

Sir William Scott observed likewi against *Thoroton* in the Court of *gates*, a separation for adultery w cription; and he proceeds to

'Although that matter objection to its validity having b as it was not, and could not be disse upon myself to assert, that it did in no ration of the court in the decision of that ca

As the authorities on this important subject a as there is an appeal from the Consistorial Court, in w decree was given, we do not think it improbable that the receive farther discussion than it has already undergone.

The introductory essay, which occupies nearly one hundred fifty pages, discovers great and various knowlege on the subject; and we perused it with satisfaction as an appropriate *preliminary* to the principal case.

Art. 27. *The modern Practice of levying Fines and suffering Recoveries* in the Court of Common Pleas at Westminster, with an Appendix of select Precedents. By W. Hands, Gent. one of the Attornies of the Court. 8vo. pp. 190. 4s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

We have frequently had occasion to notice different treatises on the subject of levying fines and suffering recoveries, in which the learning on these difficult and abstruse points of our law has been accurately and ably investigated:—but, at the same time, the information necessary for the practitioner, being inconsistent with the plan and design of those writers, has been omitted. The present volume professes to give a distinct view of the mode in which these fictitious actions are maintained, in order to enable the practising lawyer to conduct this part of his business with ease and accuracy. We can recommend the work to the attention of those for whose benefit it was more particularly intended, and the appendix of precedents will be found of considerable service.

EDUCATION, DICTIONARIES, &c.

Art. 28. *A Marine Pocket-Dictionary*, of the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and German Languages; with an English-French, and French-English Index; being a Collection of a great Variety of the most useful Sea Terms in the above Idioms. By Henry Neuman, Agent and Translator of Languages. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1799.

The following paragraph, extracted from the preface, explains the intention of this publication:

'Many an English ship is in the most imminent danger of being lost, from the commander or master not understanding the foreign pilot, who is to conduct her into port;—our navy officers and ship-masters are frequently at a loss to express their wants in foreign ports, and to examine accounts of repairs, &c. drawn up in foreign idioms,—and our merchants, ship-owners, brokers, and underwriters, are often necessitated, in regard to the true sense of the most important ship and average-papers, implicitly to rely on the imperfect knowledge of a set of translators, who boldly blunder through every translation, satisfied that the ignorance of their employers, in point of foreign sea-terms, will bear out their own. The author of the Marine Pocket-Dictionary flatters himself to have, in some measure, supplied the deficiency pointed out in the preceding remarks.'

We believe that, in this dictionary, not many material terms are omitted. They are rendered from each language into English, without additional explanations: more, indeed, was not to be expected in a dictionary of sea phrases in six different languages, comprized within so small a compass.

In a note to the preface, occasion is taken to commend two Spanish works, "*Tratado de Navigacion, por Don Josef de Mendoza y Rios, &c.*" 1787, 2 vols. 4to. and "*Reflectiones sobre las máquinas y maniobras de à bordo, ordenadas por Don Francisco Cisvar,*" *&c.* 1791, 1 vol. folio. 'which the author has no hesitation to pronounce the best works on navigation and naval tactics, hitherto published in any European language.' We have not seen either of the treatises here mentioned; and the present work does not furnish us with sufficient grounds to form an opinion concerning the degree of reliance which may be placed on the author's judgment in this matter. The world indeed, we must be sensible, is full of inconsistencies; yet we cannot hear, without experiencing considerable surprise, that seamanship is better explained by Spanish writers, than by the writers of any other nation.

Art. 29. *The Young Exiles,* or, Correspondence of some Juvenile Emigrants. A Work intended for the Entertainment and Instruction of Youth. From the French of Madame de Genlis. 12mo. 3 vols. 12s. Boards. Wright. 1799.

It is generally with pleasure that we renew our acquaintance with this elegant and ingenious author, from whose writings the public have at various periods received that entertainment and profit which a lively imagination, and a well-cultivated understanding, necessarily produce to the reader who possesses similar qualities. The letters before us, though addressed to young persons, and written principally for their amusement and instruction, are by no means so frivolous as to preclude those of maturer years from a participation of the repast; for they are both moral and entertaining, and are interspersed with a variety of interesting anecdotes. Circumstances and situations of individuals, during the perils and horrors of the French revolution, are described with such pathos and energetic sensibility, as must excite the interest and engage the attention of the humane reader.

The adventures of the little emigrant, Eugene de Vilmore, a boy nine years old, and written by himself at *that age*, are rather more improbable than even the generality of fictitious details: but we cease to wonder at the many instances of foresight in this infant MAN, when we become acquainted with the superior sagacity of his little female companion Lolotte, a girl six years of age, who was the partner of his exile. This little girl, hearing that there was a scarcity of bread in France, by frequently begging from a charitable miller a handful of flour, at length collects a sufficient quantity to fill a sack, which she sends as a present to her governess in France. This *provident* disposition in the little Lolotte induces us to imagine that she must have been a descendant of the Patriarch JOSEPH. There are many other examples of extraordinary wisdom in very young people:—which almost tempt us to exclaim, "Ah! why did they emigrate?—Surely they had before this settled the Government of France, if the older heads had consigned the power to the *younger*."

It will be supposed that, in the adventures of emigrants, politics could not be wholly avoided: but those that are introduced are of the most accommodating kind; such as, in these disturbed times, will be thought to merit praise. Vehemence shewn in political argument, especially by females, is well exposed, and treated with merited severity.

The translation is faithful; and, with the exception of a few inelegancies, such as—Lolotte being *reared* at the castle—*casting* her teeth—'tis A *pity*—oweing a *grudge*—and a few more phrases not to be found in polished English,—it may be said to do justice to the original.

Art. 30. *A Method of making Abridgments;* or, easy and certain Rules for analysing Authors; divided into Two Parts; the First, containing preliminary Explanations, and the Rules for making Abridgments; the Second, the Application of those Rules to various Selections from the best Authors. By the Abbé Gaultier. Part the First. 4to. pp. 100. 10s. 6d. Boards. Bremner. 1800.

We have had more than one opportunity of praising the ingenuity which the Abbé Gaultier has shewn in his mode of instructing young people; *he cozens them into knowlege*, by pleasing their fancy; and by holding out to them the appearance of pleasure, he entraps them into improvement. The present work is a kind of deduction from the author's games, and appears well calculated to fix the attention and exercise the talents of his pupils; it certainly proves the constant zeal which (as he professes) animates him 'in the pursuit of the most direct and expeditious means by which knowlege may be acquired.' We sincerely wish him that success to which such well-intended endeavours are intitled.

Art. 31. *L'Amie des Dames;* &c. The Lady's Friend. By Madame Félicité Guériot. 12mo. pp. 184. 3s. sewed. Dulau and Co. 1799.

This lady appears to be a sincere friend to her own sex: she endeavours to regulate their conduct and to form their sentiments by good instructions; and she is a strenuous advocate for the energy and the possibility of highly cultivating the female intellect. The work cannot be said to have any plan; its *object* is more discernible; yet we wish that her wholesome instructions had been recommended to the mental palate by a little garniture of illustration and example. A few strange apostrophes to Christian and heathen divinities, to the cardinal virtues, &c. are to be excused; and the laudable intention of instilling virtuous sentiments, and of teaching the decorums of life, makes us overlook *many* defects.

NOVELS.

Art. 32. *A Northumbrian Tale.* Written by a Lady. 12mo. pp. 301. 4s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1799.

This is a tale of other times; and while the readers of novels continue to tolerate the dolorous adventures of luckless knights pent up in the dungeons of moated castles, their entertainment may be cheaply, and we doubt not will be plentifully furnished. The most predominating characteristic of this species of composition is, that formal soporific manners are substituted for imitations of nature. Every thing in these novels partakes of the antique. The young men, except it be sometimes " a squire of low degree," never relax from the dignity of dullness, either to smile themselves, or to occasion a smile in others. The figures are all cut in wood; and, if Chaucer had not written, we might have been impressed with a belief that the English of those days were men of most immoveable muscles.—Such is the general character attributed to our ancestors by these writers. A few, and but a few, exceptions might be named. In the story before us, the author has not swerved from the example set by her predecessors: it has a competent share of subterranean horrors, and will afford as much entertainment as the majority of works of the same class.

Art. 33. *Adeline St. Julian; or,* The Midnight Hour. By Mrs. Anne Ker. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Kerby.

This performance shews that the writer, though she does not scruple to borrow, possesses fancy and invention; not indeed much restrained by attention to probabilities; nor is the style of the narrative always within the limits of grammar. We can however say that many of the novels, which we announce to the public, have afforded us less amusement. The representation of a ghost fronts the title page: (be not startled, gentle reader! it is no " goblin damned!") whether it be a good resemblance or not, we leave to the more experienced novel-reader to determine. It seems to be drawn *from the life*, and *apparently* is much better flesh and blood than the persons to whom it is supposed to appear.

Art. 34. *Fitzmaurice.* By William Frederic Williams. 12mo. 2 Vols 6s. sewed. Murray and Highley. 1800.

The author of this work tells us, in the preface, that he writes from a *mania scribendi.* We sincerely wish that it were in our power to administer to his disease; because, to deal candidly with him, it is impossible to prognosticate well either for him or for the public from his present symptoms. In the incidents of the story of Fitzmaurice, we find but little of nature or truth of character; and in the composition, nothing of the beauty of writing. Perhaps the utmost that can be said in its praise is, that it does not offend against decency and morals.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 35. *Pindarics*; or an Ode of Lamentation, addressed to Peter Pindar, Esq. on his *Nil Admirari*, &c. and a Disquisition concerning the Crasis of Peter Pindar's Blood, &c. 4to. 2s. Wallis.

"Man (says Lord Bacon) does not know how to keep a mean;" and no truth is more continually exemplified. On certain occasions, *temper* and *moderation* are scouted, as if they partook of the nature of sin. We, however, are at all times desirous of maintaining a most profound respect for these essential ingredients of sound judgment; and neither folly on one side nor calumny on the other shall ever divert us from the calm performance of our duty. Though Peter Pindar has sinned, we shall not on account of his offence deny him, as some are now inclined to do; the merit of genius. The author of these *Pindarics*, as they are called, is of this number; and though he disclaims vague invective, he deals in it very liberally. He tells Peter that 'he has no title to renown;' and he is so extravagant as to represent Mrs. More's name, as 'the sole supporter of his tottering wit.' He ventures to assert, in the preface, that, 'excepting the encomium paid by the bishop on Miss *Hannah's* works, and the witticism of the *fiddle*, there is not a single reference in the first three odes to any particular subject, thought, or expression, nor an indication that P. P. has read her works.' Was it possible for this critic to overlook Peter's censure of Mrs. More's severity on the fallen fair?

This writer humbly parodies Peter, and endeavours to turn his own artillery against him: but if Peter does not write himself down, he will not be written down by such a poet or such a critic as is now before us.—As a specimen of his wit and accuracy, we shall only give the following stricture from the disquisition (as it is called) on Peter's *blood*:

'Peter, merely to cast a slight upon the very birth-place of *poor Hannah*, has unmercifully soused all the natives of Bristol in [illegible] *quagmire*.

"The humming native of *the* Bristol pool."

How will this criticism stand when Peter is fairly quoted?

"The humming native of *a* Bristol pool?"

Art. 36. *Peter and Æsop*, a Saint Giles's Eclogue. 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray and Co. 1800.

Scavengers and nightmen are respectable gentlemen, compared with the dealers in gross calumny and unqualified abuse;—commodities which, to the disgrace of the present polished age, have been of late brought in considerable quantities into the literary market. We hope that the consequences, which have lately resulted from this degradation of talents, will operate as a warning to all versemen and prose-men against the adoption of *scurrility* and *blackguardism* in aid of their scanty wit. To hard words, succeed hard blows; and when such is the nature of the combat, the parties make no bad figure in a St. Giles's Eclogue. While the town laughs, let them blush.

The author of this poem has indulged himself at the expence of Peter and Æsop; and if he can shame them and others into a polite use of the pen, we shall congratulate him on his satire.

Art. 37. *Joanna of Montfaucon;* a Dramatic Romance of the Fourteenth Century: As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. Formed upon the Plan of the German Drama of Kotzebue: and adapted to the English Stage by Richard Cumberland. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lackington and Co. 1800.

Having already given our opinion of a literal translation from the German original of this play, (see Rev. for July last,) we have little to say of Mr. Cumberland's imitation. He has avowedly worked on his original, chiefly for the purpose of introducing pageantry and music; and he even leads us to understand, in his preface, that the encouragement given to the German Drama' does not accord with his own opinion. Mr. C.'s performance, though in respect to language it is superior to the common Kotzebue-manufacturers, certainly inspires no wish to see farther experiments of this nature attempted.

Art. 38. *Lodon and Miranda.* By Romaine Joseph Thorn: to which is added the "Poor boy," a Tale. 12mo. pp. 230. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1799.

This writer acknowleges that his poem possesses a hundred faults, for which he makes the common apology that it was written in a short space of time; viz. less than four months. As the insufficiency and impropriety of these excuses are too obvious to require any animadversion from us, we shall only add that the poem may with propriety be termed a novel in verse, of that sort which delights rather in romantic incidents than in just representations of human life; and that the composition is flat, inverted, and prosaic.

Art. 39. *Parodies on Gay*; to which is added the Battle of the Busts, a Fable,—attempted in the Style of Hudibras. 12mo. 1s. Jordan Hookham.

These parodies can boast more of easy versification than of entertaining point or of edifying moral; yet in these latter qualities they are not altogether deficient.—It were certainly vain to expect as much *humour* in an imitation of Hudibras, as that rich work itself produced; and though the fable here attempted after the manner of Butler undoubtedly is not an exception to the remark, yet it is no despicable performance. We have seen many worse copies of originals more easy to imitate.

Art. 40. *Morcar and Elfina*:—A legendary Tale, by Edward Smith, jun. small 8vo. 1s. Edinburgh.

A poetical Scotch Tale, in the measure and manner of Chevy Chase, by no means destitute of merit. A few shorter poems are annexed, which have less claim to praise.

Art. 41. *Poems.* By Edward Atkins Bray. 12mo. pp. 240. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1799.

If these juvenile effusions be not very excellent, they are on the whole very *innocent*. There is nothing in them of loose morality, or of irreligion; indeed, they may claim the praise of inculcating strongly the *immortality of the soul*, by exemplifying in a variety of modes the *existence of ghosts*, and giving poetic form to flitting shades and love-lorn apparitions.

Mr. Bray's motto justifies him against any charge of vanity in this publication;—he aspires not to the character of poet, though he publishes poems:

> " *Primum ego me illorum, dederim quibus esse poëtas,*
> *Excerpam numero; neque enim concludere versum*
> *Dixeris esse satis; neque, si quis scribat, uti nos,*
> *Sermoni propiora, putes hunc esse poëtam.*" Hor.

Art. 42. *The Siege of Cuzco.* A Tragedy, in Five Acts. By William Sotheby, Esq. F. R. S. and A. S. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

Having exhausted the old world, modern dramatists have had recourse to the new; and the historic and poetic mines of Peru have been opened and ransacked by European adventurers. Some have acquired fame and enriched literature by their spoils; and, as example is contagious, it is probable that we shall frequently see some new name added to the list. Mr. Sotheby is one of those who have been allured by the treasures, or the novelty, of the unrifled annals of Peru: but we cannot discern much skill and ingenuity in the use of his new materials. The siege of Cuzco possesses no very prominent features either of excellence or imperfection. The plot is rather defective in interest; and though the characters of Zamorin, Villoma, and Zama, are intitled to our sympathy, the situations in which they appear are too deficient in pathos to excite any high degree of feeling for them.

The author professes to have slightly imitated our early dramatic writers, in some of the unimpassioned parts of the Tragedy. Whether the following lines form any part of the imitated style, we know not: but we should rather suppose that their inaccuracy must have escaped the notice of the author, than that he purposely, and from a feeling of taste, adopted any thing so harsh and imperfect, however sanctioned by authority or example:

> ' There none beheld him, but the hopeless widow,
> *That ceased from tears when he came; and the orphan child,*
> Who knew him but on earth,' &c. p. 16.
>
> ——— ' Ye little deem'd,
> *That from her ice-crown'd heights, and caves of the rock,*' &c. p. 18.
>
> ——— ' And he so limn'd him
> *With out-strain'd eye, dark cheek, and drops on his brow;*' &c. p. 39.
>
> ———' Thou wents't, and dark despair
> Fell on the brave: while strange extravagant tales
> That made the Spaniards gods, found sure belief,' &c. p. 85.

Art. 43. *The Jew and the Doctor.* A Farce, in Two Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Dibdin. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees.

We never saw this farce represented, but we began to read it with a degree of predilection for the author on account of some former vocal productions. We expected some humour in the dialogue, if not originality in the characters; and we were not disappointed. The Jew's language and sentiments are, we believe, *fac similes* from Duke's-Place; and most of the other characters are marked by a favourite tag at the end of their speeches, like old Boniface's "Daughter Cherry! *as the saying is*," which must have had a risible effect.

The plot is not new, nor very intricate; if it were, in so short a piece, there would not be time to disintangle it. The chief merit consists in the dialogue, which is spirited, characteristic, and well seasoned with humour.

Art. 44. *Ramah Droog*, a Comic Opera, in Three Acts. As performed with universal Applause at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By James Cobb. Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees.

Ramah Droog is the Name of a Fortress and Palace of an Indian Rajah, who had usurped the sovereignty of the hereditary Prince, and put him and all his family to death, except a daughter of the late Rajah, who escaped. A detachment of troops, sent from a British settlement in India against the usurper, having been surprised by the enemy, and defeated, are imprisoned in this fortress. Among these prisoners, is an Irish serjeant, whose brogue and blunders constitute the principal humour of the piece. The Bog-trotter passes himself off as a physician, and in that character is called in to the assistance of the sick Rajah; to whose malady he has nothing to administer but a *potatoe*. *(risum teneatis?)* This Irish panacea, however, cures the usurper; whose disorder was only the effect of too copious a dose of Claret; a liquor to which his Highness was not much accustomed. Liffy, the Serjeant, for this miraculous cure, is loaded with more honors than ever were heaped on Hippocrates or Æsculapius.

This *Mock-Doctor* has an Amazonian wife, who had assumed the dress and character of a soldier in the British ranks; and no virago of antiquity, or Poissarde of modern times, ever manifested more heroism.—The piece ends (as an opera should end) happily. A second detachment of British troops, more prudent or more fortunate than the first, take the fort by storm; the captives are released; the usuper is deposed; the daughter of the murdered Rajah is raised to the throne, and is married to a neighbouring prince, a friend and ally of her father.

This wild and confused fable seems, however, to have served as a vehicle for splendid scenes, decorations, Eastern pomp, and exhibitions of a prince in procession, a tyger chase, elephants, the women of the Zenanah, music, dancing girls, &c.; and the effects of all this show were probably much heightened in the representation by the talents of the performers: but in the closet, its merits are not above mediocrity. Out of eighteen characters, only three are strongly marked: the Irishman, his termagant wife, and a treacherous and rapacious Asiatic goaler; and these are not new on the stage. The rest are so uninteresting, and so much "without mark or likelihood," that, whenever they enter, we want a nomenclator to inform us who and what they are.

Much has been said in praise of the music, in news-papers favourable to the theatre in which this opera was performed: but of the validity of such praise, which is ever suspected, we can have no better proof than the frequency of representation; which we can scarcely think this drama could have supported, without some more powerful attraction than we were able to discover in perusal, either in the dialogue or the songs. Indeed, there is a roughness in the lyric part which it must be extremely difficult to smooth by good melody. In the operas of Metastasio, the words of the airs are sedulously selected; and the numbers are so polished, yet so marked, as to point out to a composer, at the first glance, the kind of movement which will best suit them. The double rhymes of Mr. Cobb, and the hobbling lines, render it scarcely possible to give them any cadence either in reading or singing.

From the difficulty of comprehending the fable, or discovering even the sentiments of what is sung, the Italians prefix an argument to all their serious musical dramas, and an advertisement to the comic:—but we have here what is called an opera, with a hard name, not only without an argument or preface, but even without the least information concerning the interlocutors, in the list of persons of the drama.

Art. 45. *Crime from Ambition:* a Play in Five Acts. Translated from the German of William Augustus Iffland, by Maria Geisweiler. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Geisweiler. Symonds, &c. 1800.

We always wish to speak well of Mr. Iffland's plays, because they are not tainted with the libertine sentiments of the German schools; and of every fair translator we are *ambitious* to make a good report, when we can do it without a *crime*. If the public *must* read translations from the German, therefore, we can at least mention the present as a much less exceptionable piece than most of those of Kotzebue: but we are sorry to find the sentiment occasionally assisted by marginal directions, which may be truly called "Helping a lame dog over a stile."

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 46. *Two Sermons preached before His Majesty at the Chapel Royal at St. James's, during Lent.* By Brownlow, Bishop of Winchester 4to. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1799.

The first of these sermons is on the well known text, "*The fool hath said in his heart, there is no God*;"—and the right reverend preacher justly observes that,

'In respect to the great Author of our being, the errors and mistakes of men may be traced to three general sources—ignorance, superstition, and hardened unbelief—all fertile sources of evil, though of different degrees of malignity in evil; for ignorance and superstition, however unfriendly, are not hostile, to that truth which infidelity defies. Ignorance hath led mankind to absurd deifications, to the belief of false and imaginary gods of various kinds, animate and inanimate; but from this ignorance of man the existence of God was not concealed. Superstition hath absurdly falsified the object of its worship, the number and manner of its religious observances. With ideas too narrow to conceive, and to rely on, an unseen, yet all-provident God, Superstition shrinks under trivial apprehensions and causeless terrors, unless she can invest a variety of objects with the character of present deity, at hand to supply immediate and momentary help.

'But here we must observe, that the votary of false gods, and the votary of many gods, equally believe the reality of the Divine powers, and equally subscribe to the moral inferences arising from that belief. The ignorant and superstitious admit, that the object of Divine worship is good, and that man should emulate his goodness. The ignorant and superstitious acknowledge that law is the guide of man; and that to walk by the will of God, where his will is to be discovered, is the end and purpose of his being; but it is reserved for the scriptural fool alone to say, "there is no God;" it is reserved for the unbeliever only to wander in the dark and loathsome paths of those who are "without God in the world."

As one of the many pernicious effects of Atheism is stated to be a contempt of public authority, the Bishop is led to speak on the subject of civil government and religious establishments; which he maintains to be of divine origin.—Is there not some inconsistency, when his Lordship says, p. 10. 'The character my text describes *hath never been a national character in any place, but such fools have been single and individual every where*, and their folly in all places equally conspicuous, and equally odious;' and when he adds, (p. 14.) in allusion to France, 'hath it even gloried in *the national adoption of the odious character I have described?*'

The second sermon is nearly on the same subject as the first, from Psalm lviii, 2.; and here the Bishop continues his allusions to the state of a neighbouring country, and in the strongest terms imputes to that people the adoption of atheistical tenets.

The conclusion of the discourse breathes a spirit of charity and piety, which will be acceptable to all true friends to religion, virtue, and their country:—

'Good Christians, good citizens, and good men, serving our God, our community, and our neighbour, let us put away from us the enemies of the cross of Christ; let the friends of religion be our friends; let the supporters of law and government be our counsellors; let the disciples of moral truth and excellence be our companions; let us embrace with joy the hope which is held out to us; that so long as the duties attached to these valuable characters are upheld and respected amongst us, so long shall we be yet allowed to worship our God in peace and truth, to live under the happy influence of his grace through the gospel, to be directed in all our ways by law, by honesty, and by charity; in a word, the comprehensive word of an apostle, to love the brotherhood, fear God, honour the King.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 47. *An Account of the French Expedition to Egypt:* comprehending a View of the Country of Lower Egypt, its Cities, Monuments, and Inhabitants, at the Time of the Arrival of the French; and a particular Description and Measurement of Pompey's Pillar, illustrated by a Plate. By Charles Norry, Member of the Philotechnical Society, and one of the Architects attached to the Expedition. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 53. 2s. Ridgway. 1800.

As yet, the men of science attached to the French expedition to Egypt have published nothing very superb, or very satisfactory. The present little pamphlet enters into no minute details, but is informing and amusing as far as it goes. M. Norry seems desirous of giving a fair statement: and though he relates the battle of the Nile with the feelings of a Frenchman, yet he owns that *every thing proved fatal to them:* for which he attempts to account from 'the unfavourable position of their fleet, the inferiority of the crews in point of number, (we understand that the inferiority of numbers both in men and guns was on our side,) the explosion of the Admiral's ship, and the confusion that ensued as to the command.' He might have added to all these reasons, the superiority of British skill and valour: but, in a pamphlet originally designed for French readers, so unpalatable a truth is omitted.

M. Norry's voyage to Egypt, and his return, are related; particularly his narrow escapes in his passage from Alexandria to Ancona: but it may be more satisfactory to our readers, to peruse the account of his sensations and impressions on his first arrival in Egypt.

'We immediately hastened to satisfy that eager curiosity excited in every foreigner on his first arrival in a country so celebrated in history. We looked for the *Alexandria* of *Alexander*, built by the architect *Dinocrates*; we looked for that city in which were born, or educated, so many great men, that library in which the *Ptolomies* had concentrated the collection of human knowledge; in a word, we looked for that commercial city and its active and industrious inhabitants; but we found in every quarter only ruins, barbarism, debasement, and poverty, ferocious men with enormous beards, carrying in their hands long pipes, most of them indolently seated in the squares or coffee-houses, or walking along with the most apathic gravity *; women dressed in coarse blue tunics, their face covered with an ugly mask of black stuff, allowing only their eyes to be seen, and having not only their eyelashes but their eyebrows painted black, their legs and feet naked, their nails dyed with bright red, avoiding us and running away, as if they had beheld so many demons, or savages; children naked, lean, and ill-conditioned; and, lastly, the public markets (*bazars*) filthily disgusting. Shocked at this sight, we went to visit the remains of antiquity. We every where found columns of granite, some

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'* The men in easy circumstances, for the most part, shut themselves up, or had fled; and we saw none of the women of this class, they being carefully confined under lock and key.'

still standing, others promiscuously lying prostrate in the streets and squares, and even on the sea-shore, where they formed considerable piles; Egyptian monuments covered with hieroglyphics, serving for thresholds of doors, or benches used for seats. We saw some particular *bazars*, the courts of which were adorned with columns of different sorts of marble, and some of them even of porphyry. The capitals were by these barbarians often employed as bases, and reciprocally, the bases as capitals. We saw the mosque called the *Septant*, or mosque of a thousand columns; the surrounding walls are partly destroyed, and most of the columns thrown down and broken. We went to visit another deserted mosque, which served as an hospital for our sailors that were wounded at the battle of Aboukir. This is perhaps the most beautiful Egyptian monument now in existence: it consists of a dome of fine black marble, resembling basaltes, three mètres and 16 centimètres (nine feet 10 inches *) in length, by one mètre, 62 centimètres (five feet) in width, and one mètre 13 centimètres (three feet six inches) in height, charged with thousands of hieroglyphics. Here were to be seen figures of men and women, and of a multitude of the animals deified by the antient Egyptians, such as the sparrow hawk, the ibis, the lion, &c. all engraved with the perfection of antique seals. Undoubtedly this monument will be transported to the museum of Paris; at least it is already intended that it shall on a future day be one of its ornaments. It may weigh about 28,805 hectogrammes, 46 centigrammes (6,000,000 of pounds).'

M. Norry makes the height of Pompey's pillar to be 88 feet 6 inches: in which estimate he may be correct, since he and others took great pains to reach the point of accuracy: but we apprehend that he widely diverges from this point when he states the population of Cairo to be upwards of 3,000,000!!! Surely here has been a cypher too much inserted.

Art. 48. *Zimao, the African.* Translated by the Rev. Weeden Butler, M. A. of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. 12mo. pp. 115. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

We have read this little work with pleasure, because pleasure follows from having even indignation and sorrow excited by a tale of suffering and of wrong. Such a tale is Zimao; in which the horrors of the slave-trade are depicted with great strength, and apparently with justness of colouring. Humanity shudders at the recital of the wrongs of Zimao, the son of a prince of Benin; who, with the espoused mistress of his heart, and a numerous suite, were seduced by European traders to visit a Guinea ship, where they were instantly put into irons, and carried off. The sufferings of the voyage, the sale of the slaves at Porto Bello, the separation of the prince and his wife, an insurrection of the slaves headed by Zimao, who joined the Maroons, and, being elected chief, returned to wreak vengeance on his oppressor; the casual meeting of Zimao and his wife in the plantation of a proprietor who had been merciful to his slaves, and whom therefore Zimao's discriminating vengeance spared;—all form a very interesting picture of the slave-trade, and of the African character.

' * The Paris foot is equal to 12.798 English measure.'

An appendix, consisting of extracts from the evidence delivered at the bar of the House of Commons, when that subject was under the consideration of Parliament, gives probability and substance to the horrible incidents related in the preceding tale.

The dedication of this work is very peculiar in its nature, but we choose to forbear from commenting on it.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The request of G. M. is so entirely out of our province, that we cannot comply with it: but we would offer him our opinion that he had better relinquish his design. There have been already so many publications by learned men, on the difficult subject in question, that it would be very hazardous to discuss it without being well acquainted with former hypotheses, and well qualified by diligent and extensive observation. We may refer him to pp. 541—544 of the Appendix to our xxxiid vol. which appears with this Review.

Surely, '*One of those animals commonly called Men*' might have perceived that the passage, on which he animadverts, were a quotation; and that we did not deem it worth while to notice the inadvertency of the writer.

We think that the remarks in a letter signed A— are unfounded; and the style of it is very objectionable. It therefore is not intitled to farther attention.

Mr. Flower's work is not forgotten, and we shall soon give an account of it.

G. B. will perceive, on reading our *Appendix* to vol. xxxii. (published with this Review) the use which has been made of his communication. His future Correspondence will be acceptable, but we shall beg to know to whom we are obliged.

We fear that '*a Young Student*' will deem himself neglected: but our delay has been involuntary and unavoidable. We apprehend that the address, with which he formerly favored us, would not now convey a letter to him.

Φιλομαθὴς is unintelligible, through the want of a more correct reference to the passage quoted.

F. B.'s letter from Buxton is under consideration.

A. B. is informed that Mr. Shield's Treatise on Harmony will appear in our next Review. — — S. S. is received.

☞ Rev. for August, p. 360. l. 2. for 'new novel,' r. *novel views*; and p. 432. l. 6. from bott. for 'come,' r. *some*.

⁂ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXII. of the Monthly Review was shed with this Number, as usual.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1800.

Art. I. *Phytologia;* or the Philosophy of Agriculture and Gardening. With the Theory of Draining Morasses, and with an improved Construction of the Drill Plough. By Erasmus Darwin, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 4to. pp. 612. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

Those readers, who are in the pursuit of useful knowlege, will be gratified by finding the genius and acquirements of Dr. Darwin exerted in such an undertaking as the present. The arts most natural to man,—which excite the most agreeable images and associations, even in the inhabitants of great cities, —and in the cultivation of which it is so pleasing to employ the evening of life,—require taste as well as information in their theorist. The pretensions of the author of this work, in these respects, have been already acknowleged with peculiar favour by the public; and we shall proceed with great satisfaction in our survey of his interesting production. It is not our intention, however, to deliver a mere panegyric on Dr. Darwin's opinions. Whenever we may find ourselves incited to express a difference of sentiment, we shall interpose our judgment with freedom, but we hope never to forget the respect due to so venerable a writer. Even the lively sallies of imagination, which we may think it necessary to restrain, must furnish cause for admiration, to those who believe the influence of mind over matter; and who perceive, in this instance, a consoling example of the happy effects produced in very advanced age by intellectual activity.

Dr. Darwin begins with the *Physiology of Vegetation.* Under this head, he endeavours to prove that vegetables 'are in reality an inferior order of animals.' We think that it would have been more philosophical to have observed, that the distinction of natural objects into the animal, mineral, and vegetable kingdoms, is an arbitrary arrangement, of mere convenience; and that nature forms individuals only. Man, in order to assist his comprehension, contructs an index, which he

too often mistakes for a system; and he perplexes hi
about the unimportant distribution of his catalogue, as if i
an immediate reference to the natural order of things.
consequences of this false analogy influence so large a p
Dr. Darwin's work, that they cannot be overlooked. H
supplied vegetables with organs, not merely similar to th
inferior animals, but to those of more perfect stru
When he attributes to plants, lungs, circulation analago
that of the blood, lymphatics, &c. we are amused, but n
structed. A little reflection dissipates the delusion, and b
us back to humble and obvious truth. *Opinionum comment*
dies. (Cic.) Allowing the individuality of the buds,
Dr. Darwin' labours to prove, it amounts to little more
the individuality of the parts of a polypus; and as those s
without the complex structure of perfect animals, the
might be allowed to vegetate without resorting to the acc
lation of parts which Dr. Darwin has assigned to it.

It is curious, indeed, to observe how naturalists have t
respecting the limits of their ideal kingdoms. Accordi
some, the union of small beings, which may be reproduce
dividually, has formed the approximation of the coral
polypus to a vegetable state. If then, the individuality o
coral, &c. be assumed as a proof of a vegetable nature,
the individuality of buds as a proof of an animal nature,
a fair conclusion that nothing is demonstrated by either
but that the varieties of nature are not yet completely eluci
by any system.

Dr. Darwin's assumptions would even prove more tha
intends, were they admitted; since the individuality o
polypus and coral would thus be attributed to beings furn
with the most essential parts of perfect animals; and veget
would thus approach nearer to man in their nature, than
animals which Dr. D. seems to consider as intermediate b
between animals and plants.

We select the following passages, to shew how lavishl
author has bestowed his theories on this part of his work:

' As the leaves of trees become expanded, the sap-juice abo
scribed ceases to flow, and the bark of the tree then adheres t
alburnum. Afterwards from the middle of June to the mid
August, as Dr. Bradley has observed, there seems to be a pa
vegetation; at which time the new buds in the bosom of eac
seem to be generated, and the bark, which during the two prec
months adhered to the wood, now easily separates, as in the s
according to the observation of Duhamel, Vol. II. p. 261; and
tation, which appeared to languish during the heats of midsu
acquires new vigour at the approach of autumn like that of spr

'This circumstance, which seems to have puzzled many naturalists, is to be explained from the action of the umbilical vessels of the new buds, which begin to enlarge as soon as they are formed, and in this climate have their progress stopped by the cold during the winter; and the moisture which exsudes from the sides of these vessels, and is extravasated between the alburnum and the bark, causes an easy separation of them from each other.

'From the new flow of sap in these vessels about midsummer, being probably in part conveyed to the leaves by the retrograde action of their lymphatics in very hot weather, the honey-dew seems to originate either as an exsudation from the leaf, or from the vessels being punctured by the aphis, which drinks the vegetable chyle in such great quantity that it passes through the insect almost unchanged; and thus causes the suffusion of honey on the leaves below them for a time in the heat of summer.'

This reads very smoothly: but to the sound physiologist, who considers the doctrine of a retrograde motion in the lymphatics in man as at least very questionable, this mode of accounting for the phænomenon will appear totally unsupported.

The spiral vessels, discoverable in plants, are supposed by Dr. Darwin to be absorbents; and here those readers, who are not convinced by his arguments, will at least be entertained by his ingenuity. He supposes the leaves to perform the office of lungs; we think, on very slight grounds. No function has yet been discovered in plants, similar to the respiration of animals; nor is the presence of air so necessary to the existence of the former, as to that of the latter. Here, again, the love of indeterminate analogy has led the author into a strange hypothesis.

'A stalk with the leaves and seed-vessels of large spurge (euphorbia helioscopia) in June 1791, had been several days placed in a decoction of madder, (rubia tinctoria) so that the lower part of the stem and two of the inferior leaves were immersed in it. After having washed the immersed leaves in much clean water, I could readily discern the colour of the madder passing along the middle rib of each leaf. This red artery was beautifully visible both in the under and upper surface of the leaf: but on the upper side many red branches were seen going from it to the extremities of the leaf, which on the other side were not visible except by looking through it against the light. On this under side a system of branching vessels carrying a pale milky fluid, were seen coming from the extremities of the leaf, and covering the whole under side of it, and joining into two large veins, one on each side of the red artery in the middle rib of the leaf, and along with it descending to the foot-stalk or petiole. On slitting one of these leaves with scissars, and having a common magnifying lens ready, the milky blood was seen oozing out of the returning vein on each side of the red artery in the middle rib, but none of the red fluid from the artery.

‘ All these appearances were more easily seen in a leaf of picris treated in the same manner; for in this milky plant the stems and middle-rib of the leaves are sometimes naturally coloured reddish, and hence the colour of the madder seemed to pass further into the ramifications of their leaf-arteries, and was there beautifully visible with the returning branches of milky veins on each side.

‘ In a plant which was sent to me under the name of senecio bicolor, but which I have not yet seen in flower, the upper surface of the leaf is green like most other leaves, but during the vernal months the under surface is of a deep red, whence I conclude that the vegetable blood acquires the red colour in the terminations of the pulmonary artery in the upper surfaces of the leaves, which becomes visible as it passes in the large veins on the inferior surface. In the same manner the red colour of the blood is most visible in the large veins beneath the leaf of the red veined dock, rumex sanguinea.’

The doctrine of a complete circulation in vegetables is by no means new. It has been already asserted, and abandoned; and it will probably be again given up, notwithstanding the ability with which it is defended by the present writer. We shall add some of his farther *proofs* on this subject:

‘ This repulsion of the upper surfaces of the leaves of aerial plants to water bears some analogy to the renitency of the larinx to the admission of water into the lungs of animals; for if a single drop accidentally falls into the windpipe, a convulsive cough is induced till it is regurgitated. For the same reason several plants close together the upper surfaces of their leaves when it rains, in the same manner as in their sleep during the night, as mimosa, the sensitive plant, and the young shoots of chick-weed, alsine; and of kidney-bean, phaseolus.

‘ As those insects which have many spiracula or breathing apertures, as wasps and flies, are immediately suffocated by pouring oil upon them, in the year 1783 I carefully covered with oil the surfaces of several leaves of phlomis, of Portugal laurel, and balsams; and though it would not regularly adhere, I found them all die in a day or two, which shews another similitude between the lungs of animals and the leaves of vegetables.’

We must confess that this, with much other reasoning which our limits will not permit us to notice, is far from producing a satisfactory conviction in our minds. To render plausible, and to render probable, are two processes, essentially different: but which writers of an hypothetical turn are extremely apt to confound.

The section on the *Aortal Arteries and Veins* of Plants is equally deficient in proof, though agreeably written: much is asserted, much is conjectured, but nothing is established in it. The following experiments are surely not conclusive:

‘ Some stems of large spurge, euphorbia, were set upright in a decoction of oak-galls, and others in a solution of green vitriol.

On

ing of coloured points was agreeably visible many inches ; but on slicing the stem from below up to the insertion s and buds in their bosoms, I persuaded myself that I could e coloured absorbents of the stem enlarged at the part with the attendant vein changes into a pulmonary artery, nto the leaf, forming three or more of the ribs of it, and uting the upper part of the caudex gemmæ.

r circumstance was beautifully visible, which was, that the linder of absorbent vessels had evidently separated to allow d to apply its interior termination to the pith ; which pro- it was secreted by the glands of the caudex of the parent in this situation a proper nidus, and due nutriment for its ite, as in the uterus of the female.'

logy respecting the *Glands and Secretions* of vegetables at closer ; at least, the want of demonstration being both kingdoms, on this point, the conjectural parts s strained. We here find a defence of the intro- alum into bread, which is particularly interesting at t moment :

here add a conjecture, that I suppose the use of alum in ad consists in its coagulating the mucilage, and perhaps uting to convert it into starch ; for the bakers mix it with new wheat ; and affirm, that it makes the flour of equal to old.

much alum is mixed with bread, it may be distinguished y a curious circumstance, which is, that where two loaves together in the oven, they break from each other with a ther surface, where they had adhered, than those loaves do t contain alum.

clean sand in showers by means of a riddle through the wine. Alum is said to be used by the Chinese for the purpose of cleaning the water of some stagnant reservoirs; and when used in small quantity may in all these respects be rather salutary than injurious to the bread of London.'

We are surprized to see Dr. Darwin among the supporters of the doctrine, that sugar is the principal nutriment of animal and vegetable beings [p. 77]. It is now a general opinion among physiologists, that the basis of nourishment is the gluten, which is discovered on the analysis both of animal and vegetable substances.

The section on the vegetable *Organs of Reproduction* contains much curious matter. We shall extract one observation, which may be found of practical importance:

> 'Another curious occurrence in this lateral production of vegetables by their buds has been lately published by Mr. Knight in the Phil. Trans. for the year 1795, who observes, that those apple-trees, which have been continually propagated for above a century by ingrafting, are now become so diseased by canker, or otherwise, that though the fruit continues of the same flavour, the trees are not worth propagating; as these grafts, though transplanted into other trees, he esteems to be still an elongation of the original tree, and must feel the effect of age like the tree they were taken from. If this idea should prove true on further examination, there is reason to suspect the same may occur in the too long propagation of plants from bulbs and wires, as potatoes and strawberries, which may have occasioned the curled tops of potatoes, and the black blight in the flowers of the hautbois strawberry, which some have ascribed to its only bearing male flowers; the cure of which must arise from our applying to other varieties more lately derived from a seminal offspring.
>
> 'This degeneracy of trees or perennial herbaceous plants propagated by buds or root-scions is not I think to be ascribed simply to the age of the original seedling-tree, because each successive generation of buds or bulbs are as distinct from the parent, as the generation by seeds. But as the lateral progeny of vegetables have no source of improvement after they have arrived at their maturity, but are liable like other plants and animals to injuries from food and climate, which injuries produce hereditary diseases, it is to this circumstance that their degeneracy ought rather to be ascribed; whereas the sexual progeny of vegetables are liable to improvement by the intermixture of the individuals of the same, or even of different species to counteract the effects of hereditary diseases.'

We observe, however, many passages which are more fanciful than philosophical, under this head. The author's idea of *Vegetable Passions and Crimes* ought never to have bee offered in prose to the world.—The great scope which he ha allowed to the production of mules, both in animal and veg table life, must be comprehended under the same censure.

We must likewise object to the following notions respecting generation:

'If the philosopher, who thinks on this subject, should not be inclined to believe that the whole of the blood is alive; he cannot easily deny life to that part of it which is secreted by the organs of generation, and conveys vitality to the new embryon, which it produces. Hence though in the process of nutrition the activity of two kinds of fibrils or molecules may be suspected, yet in the process of the generation of a new vegetable or animal, there seems great reason to believe, that both the combining and combined particles are endued with vitality; that is, with some degree of organization or other properties not existing in inanimate matter, which we beg leave to denominate fibrils with formative appetencies, and molecules with formative propensities, as the former may seem to possess a greater degree of organization than the latter.'

This attribution of a desire to assume a certain form, in parts which have no sensorial organ, is certainly unphilosophical: it is at once constituting this unorganized part a thinking animal; and it thus increases the difficulty which the theory is intended to solve. Besides, if we were to grant Dr. Darwin's supposition, can he inform us how the fibril acquires his appetency? If he cannot, his theory still explains nothing. He is only placing the tortoise on the back of the elephant.—We think, indeed, that Dr. D.'s assertions concerning the lateral propagation of vegetables, by the mixture of his *desiring* fibrils and *languishing* molecules in the pericarp of flowers, completely overturn his favourite position of the amatorial propensity of vegetables; if so fanciful a doctrine can be supposed to require demolition. If single particles of matter can be impressed with the propensities of compound bodies, the structure from which the appetite of love is usually inferred becomes totally unnecessary; and it would be absolutely ridiculous to suppose that Providence would multiply, without necessity, the complex organs of production, if a simple secretion (according to Dr. D.'s opinion) were sufficient for the excitement of the appetite in a large part of the vegetable world.

It is to be hoped that the application of this theory of male and female fibrils and molecules, to the theory of generation, will be well considered by Dr. D. before he introduces it, as he hints an intention, in a new edition of his Zoonomia. That animals desire and produce, because they contain particles endued with formative and nutritive propensities, is a doctrine which can only be paralleled by the *homœomeria* of Anaxagoras; or by Moliere's account of the powers of opium, that it produces sleep because it possesses a narcotic virtue, the nature of which is to lull the senses! This false shew of philosophy ought now to be banished from good books.

In this chapter, we wondered to find Dr. Darwin speaking respectfully of Buffon's theory of organic particles, which has been completely exploded by Spallanzani.

We really feel ourselves unfortunate in being obliged to speak of yet another chapter, in lower terms of approbation than we could have wished: but at the title of *the Muscles, Nerves, and Brain, of Vegetables*, we shook our heads with regret. We little expected to have seen the thread-bare opinions of Campanella patched by so respectable a hand. Surely Dr. D. will hereafter quote Pliny's idea that trees are fond of drinking wine!

The want of exact references will be greatly felt, in this part of the book, by intelligent readers. Facts and opinions are delivered by the author in the same style; and thus the learner is puzzled to distinguish between certainty and conjecture.

The leading error, in this division of the work, consists in inferring a perfect from an imperfect analogy between certain individual existences. Strict philosophy has nothing to do with imagination; and the student should be taught to distinguish between Claudian and Columella.

In the *Second* part of the volume, which treats of the *Oeconomy of Vegetation*, we begin to breathe a purer philosophical atmosphere. We were almost reduced before, to the prayer of Ajax:

Ποιησον δ'αιθρην, δος δ'οφθαλμοισιν ιδεσθαι—

The first section of this division [the 9th of the whole] treats *of Seeds, Buds, and Bulbs*; but, even in this more stable ground, we meet with singular instances of the love of conjecture; witness the following:

> 'We may in some measure comprehend a difficult question; why the plume of a seed sowed upon, or in the earth, should ascend, and the root descend, which has been ascribed to a mysterious instinct; the plumula is stimulated by the air into action, and elongates itself, where it is thus most excited; and the radicle is stimulated by moisture, and elongates itself thus, where it is most excited, whence one of them grows upwards in quest of its adapted object, and the other downward.'

Might not similar reasoning be applied to the motion of a shuttlecock? and does not the structure of the shuttlecock exactly illustrate that of the plumular seed?—When, however, the author proceeds to display his stores of curious information, we receive an ample recompense for our previous dissatisfaction.—The following remarks on the succession of buds are very interesting, and are marked with all the acute observation which characterizes Dr. Darwin's mind:

'Those plants, which are usually termed annuals, produce their flowers and die in the same year in which their seeds are sown; as barley, oats, and a variety of garden flowers. These nevertheless in accurate language should be termed biennials, because the seed in this climate is produced in one summer; and the embryon plant becomes mature in the next; as the seed is generally preserved in our granaries, or seed-boxes, and not committed to the ground till the ensuing spring; for many of these vegetables are not natives of this climate, and would perish if the seeds were sown in autumn, when it is naturally scattered on the earth.

'Those which are usually termed biennial plants, differ from the former, first, in the time of sowing the seed, which is generally in the early autumn, as soon as it is ripe, as of turneps, carrots, wheat; and thus these produce their flowers in the second year after the seed is sown, which has given them the name of biennials. Many of these plants, perhaps all of them, lay up a reservoir of nutritious matter during the summer or autumn in their roots. This nutriment is secreted from the vegetable blood, which is previously oxygenated for that purpose in the large leaves, which generally surround the caudex of the plant, as in turneps and carrots. These leaves survive the winter in many plants, which the more succulent stems probably would not; and the nutriment deposited in the root is expended in the growth of the stem and the production of seed in the ensuing spring. As in these vegetables one of our summers is too short for their growth from the seed to the fructification; and it is for this reservoir of nutriment that these plants are generally cultivated.

'But those plants, which are termed perennial, when first raised from seed, are many of them some years before they produce flowers. Some of them form bulbous roots, as the tulip, hyacinth, onion, which are three or four years before they flower, during which time I believe all the bulbs die annually, producing one larger than that of the preceding year, and perhaps some smaller ones, all which annually increase in size till they flower. The same occurs in potatoe-roots raised from seed, which do not flower as I am informed till the third year, and then only those which seemed of stronger or forwarder growth.

'Other perennial plants have palmated or branching roots; in some of these, as in seedling apple-trees, the flower is said not to appear till ten or twelve years after the seed is sown; the buds nevertheless annually dying and producing other buds over them, perhaps more perfect ones, as they acquire after a few years the power of producing sexual organs, and in consequence a seminal progeny. In these perennial herbaceous plants and trees a magazine of nutriment is provided in their roots or sap-wood, to supply the new buds, which are to grow in the ensuing spring.

'Whence it appears, that all the vegetables of this climate may be termed biennial plants; as the seeds of some, and the buds or bulbs of others, are produced in one summer, and flourish and die in the next; those which are called annuals or biennials leaving behind them a future progeny of seeds only; those, which are termed perennial herbaceous plants, leaving behind them the first year or two a progeny of bulbs or root-buds only, and afterwards a progeny of seeds also; while the perennial arborescent vegetables leave behind them a progeny of buds only for several successive years, and afterwards a progeny of both buds and seeds.

'Thus the bulb from a tulip-seed produces a more perfect bulb annually, till it flowers, I believe, on the fifth year. It then produces a flower, and also one perfect bulb, which flowers the next year; and some other less perfect bulbs, which are succeeded by more perfect ones annually, till they also flower. Whence I conclude, that no tulip bulb flowers till the fourth or fifth generation.

'It is probable, that a similar circumstance occurs in other vegetables, as in apple-trees; and that the buds of these do not produce sexual organs, and a consequent seminal progeny, till the twelfth or fourteenth generation of the bud from the seed; each of those buds nevertheless producing one principal bud annually more perfect than itself, and many lateral buds less perfect than itself; that is, at a greater distance from that state of maturity which enables it to form a flower. This art of distinguishing the greater or less maturity of buds is a matter of great importance in the management of fruit-trees, as in many of them the central bud becomes a spur one year, and flowers the next; and the lateral buds one or two years afterwards, as will be mentioned in Sect. XV. on the production of fruit.'

We could with great satisfaction quote several other valuable passages from this section: but we must forbear, in consideration of the length to which this article has already run, and is yet likely to extend. For the information of our agricultural friends, however, we shall extract the following notice:

'One great advantage of Mr. Tull's horse-hoeing husbandry, in which the earth near the rows of wheat is alternately turned from and to them during the vernal months, has been supposed to arise from some fibres of the roots being thus cut off, and new stems shooting up at the ends of those which remain; but the real cause of the production of the new stems is from the accumulation of earth above the first joint of the young wheat-plant; from which the new buds spring out, generated and nourished by the caudex of the leaf, which surrounds that joint, and which afterwards withers; this important circumstance is shewn by the annexed delineation of a transplanted wheat-plant.'

The Xth section treats of Manures, or the food of Plants. We are here informed that the food of infant vegetables, like that of animals, consists of saccharine mucilaginous matter. Yet sugar is mentioned, (p. 189,) as the *product* of vegetable digestion; and, by a still more singular mode of reasoning, the proof of a similar result from animal digestion is drawn from the saccharine matter of diabetic urine. Did not the author recollect that the latter is a morbid production, and that it forms no part of the natural contents of urine?

In the next paragraph, however, we are again compensated:

> 'We now come to consider the food of adult plants; and in this consists the great and essential difference between the nutritive processes of animals and vegetables. The former are possessed of a stomach, by which they can in a few hours decompose the tender parts of vegetable and animal substances by a chemical process within themselves, conducted in the heat of ninety-eight degrees, with a due quantity of water, and a perpetual agitation of the ingredients; which both mixes them, and applies them to the mouths of the absorbent vessels, which surround them. Whereas a vegetable being having no stomach is necessitated to wait for the spontaneous decomposition of animal or vegetable recrements; which is indeed continually going on in those soils, and climates, and in those seasons of the year, which are most friendly to vegetation; but is in other situations, and in other seasons, a slow process in a degree of heat often as low as forty of Farenheit, (in which the reindeer moss, moschus rangiferinns, vegetates beneath the snow in Siberia,) and often without an adapted quantity of water to give a due fluidity, or any mechanical locomotion to present them to the absorbent mouths of their roots; or in still worse situations adult vegetables are necessitated still more slowly to acquire or produce their nutritive juices from the simpler elements of air and water, with perhaps the solutions of carbonic acid and calcareous earth, and perhaps of some other matters, with which one or more of them abound.'

Some experiments are mentioned on the effect of oxygenating the seeds of plants: but they do not appear to be quite conclusive

Dr. Darwin has made much use of the new chemistry, in this division. He supposes that plants obtain their phosphorus from the remains of decaying vegetable and animal bodies, and from calcareous earth; and he conceives that the supply of it for them may become an important object in agriculture. In this way, among others, he accounts for the utility of lime in farming.

On the subject of the *Saccharine Process*, in the stomach of animals, the following experiment deserves attention:

> 'Some large round austere pears were yesterday, November 20, shewn me after having been nine hours in the oven behind a kitchen fire covered some inches with water in a steam-pot. On tasting them they were sweet, and soft, and appeared to have had at least the heat of boiling water. They were replaced in the oven, and kept in it twelve hours longer; and then became nearly as sweet as syrup or treacle; which might in part have been occasioned by the evaporation of half the water. From this curious circumstance there seems reason to conclude, that in a degree of heat about that of boiling

water the saccharine process may succeed; and at the same time that the process of fermentation may be prevented from existing; which I hope may induce some chemical philosopher to investigate by experiments this curious and important subject.'

It is afterward suggested that some substances, such as horn, hair, and bones, might be rendered useful as manures, by the action of Papin's digester. Much other useful matter occurs in this section, which we are obliged to pass without particularizing.

On 'Draining and Watering,' we meet with many excellent observations, but nothing exclusively new.—The Aeration and Pulverization of the Soil are explained on the modern principles of chemistry; and in course the theory must stand or fall with them.—The subsequent observations on Fallowing, however, deserve particular attention:

'Nevertheless where the soil is already replete with manures, and these processes productive of carbonic, nitrous, and phosphoric acids, and of volatile alkali, are going on in proper abundance; such soils must be injured by being too frequently turned over in summer fallowing; and thus by exposing too great a surface, and that too frequently, to the air, the sunshine, and the rain; by which much of the fluid carbonic acid will be converted into aerial carbonic acid, and escape, as well as the phosphorus and the ingredients in their state previous to the production of nitrous acid, and of the volatile alkali. On this account in the manufacture of nitre in France, Spain, and Prussia, it is directed to cover the compost of soil and animal recrements with a shed to prevent too great exhalation and ablution. Hence though a summer fallow may be of advantage to a poor soil, which has nothing to lose; it must be disadvantageous to a rich one, which has nothing to gain.

'Lord Dundonald in his work on the Connection of Agriculture and Chemistry ingeniously supposes, that soils become injured, when much exposed to the air by fallowing, from the carbon or other inflammable matters uniting with oxygen; and that then being again combined with other materials, they become insoluble, producing limestone, calcareous nitre, and phosphat of lime. But there is another injury to soil by frequent fallowing, which I suspect to be more extensive, from the escape of carbonic acid, or of nitrous acid, or of ammonia, into the atmosphere in the form of gas, as above mentioned; or their being washed away by rains.

'Hence the great advantages of Mr. Tull's ingenious discovery of the drill husbandry are easily understood. 1. By sowing the wheat in rows, scattered by a drill-plough at regular distances, and buried at a regular depth, the grain is neither crowded, nor too thinly dispersed. 2. Nor are the roots buried either too deep in the soil, or too shallow. 3. By turning the soil first from the rows in the spring for a week or two, and then turning it up against the rows, the soil becomes newly aerated with all the good effects in consequence. 4. It becomes more penetrable by the superficial roots of the corn. 5. By raising it to the second joint of the corn-stems, four or six new roots with new stems will shoot out, generated by the caudex of the second leaf of the corn-stem; which is now within the soil, or in contact with it, as explained in Sect. IX. 3. 1. and 7. XVI. 2. 2.'

To obviate the usual objection to Mr. Tull's drill plough, Dr. Darwin has offered an improvement, for which we must refer our readers to the book.

In the chapter on *Light, Heat, and Electricity*, we find many ingenious remarks, mingled with the author's peculiar notions. He seems to support the doctrine of two different electrical fluids, which he denominates the vitreous and resinous, in opposition to Dr. Franklin's theory of positive and negative electricity. Dr. Darwin proposes to attract the benefits of electricity to plants, by erecting short conductors in different parts of the garden; and he describes a method of subjecting flower-pots to the constant influence of electricity.

The *Diseases of Plants* furnish an instructive and curious chapter, which we are sorry to see disfigured by the doctrine of retrograde motion in the supposed vegetable lymphatics. A copious account is given of the destructive action of the *Aphis*, the insect which seems to occasion the honey-dew: but this we have not room to insert. This formidable enemy to vegetation may be destroyed by the smoke of tobacco, or by being sprinkled with Scotch snuff: but the most effectual means of counter-acting him, Dr. Darwin thinks, would be the propagation of the larva of the aphidivorous fly. He is of opinion that the growth of May-chaffers, and other destructive insects, might be checked by encouraging the breed of small hedge-birds, and perhaps of larks, and of rooks, by not taking their nests.

We ought to notice a curious fact respecting the history of Bees, though it seems rather misplaced in a chapter on the Diseases of Plants:

'The bees of one society frequently attack those of another society, plunder them of their honey, and destroy most of them, perhaps all of them, in battle; in this respect resembling the societies of mankind! This war for plunder occurs more frequently than is commonly suspected. Last year I had one hive of bees totally destroyed, and the year before another, which I did not take means to prevent, though I saw the contest, and the number destroyed in the latter; but not early enough in the commencement of hostilities.

'Last week, June 16, I happened to see a great number of bees on the wing near the mouth of my only hive, and supposed that they were about to swarm. In an hour or two, on again attending to them I distinctly saw it was a violent battle; and at night observed about a hundred dead bees on the ground, and on the bench before the hive. I then directed a board about an inch thick to be laid on the bee-bench, and set the hive on this board with its mouth exactly on the edge of this board, the mouth of the hive was also contracted to about an inch in length, and a semicircular hollow was made in the board immediately under the mouth of the hive. By this means the assailing bees were obliged to alight on the bee-bench, and then to climb perpendicularly up the edge of the board, on which the hive was now placed; and thus appeared to act with great disadvantage; and a much less number of bees appeared to be slain in this day's battle; whence it would be advantageous always to place bee-hives in this manner.

'Nevertheless, as the war did not cease, I directed early on the next morning to remove the bee-hive to a distant part of the garden, and to a more easterly aspect, and found to my great satisfaction, that the hosts of the enemy did not follow; and that in a few hours the unassailed bees resumed their work, as appeared by their going into the hive with loaded thighs; and though a few of them were seen on the following two nights resting on their old habitation, these were carried early on the ensuing morning in their torpid state to their new situation, and the war ended without extermination of either society.'

Some remarks on the art of catching rats and moles conclude the chapter.

On the *Production of Fruits*, we find many interesting observations: but they are such as cannot well be abridged; and the lovers of gardening will undoubtedly wish to see them entire.

Some pretty verses are introduced, on the art of Pruning.

The valuable section on the *Production of Seeds* must be passed over by us, for the same reasons with the former; and in like manner we shall just mention the titles of several succeeding sections; on the *Production of Roots and Barks*, of *Leaves and Wood*, and of *Flowers*. We could dwell with pleasure on many parts of these divisions, but we have already exceeded our limits.

The work is closed with a plan for disposing a part of the vegetable system of Linné into more natural classes and orders. Dr. Darwin proposes to arrange them according to the proportions or situations of the stamina, alone, or conjointly with their number. The number of the sexual parts, he supposes, is more liable to be affected by differences of soil and cultivation, than their forms and proportions. There is, however, some obscurity in his mode of expression; and, we imagine, some mistake:

'I contend, that the number of the sexual organs in flowers is more liable to change by the influence of soil or climate, or by the progress of time, than their situations or proportions, or forms, and might therefore probably be more advantageously employed in distinguishing their classes and orders from each other, as well as in rendering them more natural combinations.'

Dr. Darwin evidently means to say, that the least variable parts of plants ought to be used in classing them; and that the number of sexual parts being more variable, they will be less advantageous for this purpose.

Some very doubtful doctrine is here introduced, respecting the power of organized beings to vary their own structure by volition.—We observe a curious proposal in the additional notes:

'In the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society there is a paper shewing, that the water-rats in that part of the country are so liable to be affected with tape-worm, as is supposed much to diminish their numbers. In this country many animals, as I believe dogs, cats, and geese, as well as the human species, are afflicted with this intestine enemy. Could some of these diseased American rats be imported into this country, and propagate their malady amongst the native rats of this climate?'

It is fortunate for our ingenious author, that the volition of rats has not yet extended to a knowlege of the alphabet. If they should ever *will* to become philosophical readers during his life, (and long may he live!) he must expect the fate of the German Bishop Hatto.

It is now time to take leave of our agreeable companion in this excursion. Though we must candidly own that the information offered to us has not always been equal to our expectation; yet, as the Clown says, "travellers must learn to be contented." We can, however, recommend his work to our readers, as the most entertaining system of the kind hitherto published; especially to

——— retired Leisure,
That in trim gardens takes his pleasure.

If Dr. Darwin had indulged less in theory, and had enlarged the number of his facts, our satisfaction would have been complete.

Art. II. *The Piccolomini*, or the First Part of Wallenstein; a Drama in Five Acts. Translated from the German of Frederick Schiller by S. T. Coleridge. 8vo. pp. 214. 4s. sewed. Longman and Rees. 1800.

The Death of Wallenstein. A Tragedy. From the Same, by the Same. 8vo. pp. 157. 4s. sewed. Longman, &c.

The story of the aspiring Duke of Friedland, whose family name was Walstein, or Wallenstein, and who was the fortunate opponent of Gustavus Adolphus, has long been familiar to men of historical knowlege. Lately, it has been introduced to general readers, in a Concise View of the Thirty-years'-war, published by Schiller *. In Germany, the plot will naturally be interesting, as the poet has adhered pretty closely to the facts: but in this country it is not calculated to excite much attention, especially under the disadvantage of the languid translation through which it is offered to our view.

Mr. Coleridge, indeed, has spoken very modestly respecting the merits of his version, which he professes to have rendered as literal as the idioms of the two languages would permit. Perhaps, however, a judicious alteration of Schiller's work would have been more acceptable to readers of good taste. The division of the action into two plays renders the plot insufferably tedious; and, even with the engrafted love-intrigue, the interest flattens extremely before the catastrophe. To compensate for this defect, however, the pieces are more regular than many other productions of the German theatre; and they are at least free from absurdity. Wallenstein's belief in astrology forms a part of both tragedies: but this error was almost universal in that age.

It is remarked by Mr. Coleridge, that these plays may be said to bear the same relation to the *Robbers* and the *Cabal and Love* of Schiller, with that which the historical plays of Shakspeare bear to his *Lear* and *Othello*. Yet, in the most meagre of Shakspeare's *Histories*, we occasionally meet with passages of uncommon beauty, which imprint themselves indelibly on our minds; and we have not observed any sentiments or expressions of this kind in the tragedies before us.

That we may do justice to the translator, we shall extract part of two scenes, which he has pointed out as singularly deserving of praise. First, from the first drama:

' *Octavio.* My son, the nursling of the camp spoke in thee!
A war of fifteen years
Hath been thy education and thy school.
Peace hast thou never witness'd! There exists
An higher than the warrior's excellence.
In war itself war is no ultimate purpose.
The vast and sudden deeds of violence,
Adventures wild, and wonders of the moment,
These are not they, my son, that generate
The Calm, the Blissful, and th' enduring Mighty!
Lo there! the soldier, rapid architect!
Builds his light town of canvass, and at once

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* A translation of this work has been published, and we shall give an account of it in a future Number.

The whole scene moves and bustles momently,
With arms, and neighing steeds, and mirth and quarrel!
The motley market fills; the roads, the streams
Are crowded with new freights, trade stirs and hurries!
But on some morrow morn, all suddenly,
The tents drop down, the horde renews its march.
Dreary, and solitary as a church-yard
The meadow and down trodden seed-plot lie,
And the year's harvest is gone utterly.
‘ *Max.* O let the Emperor make peace, my father!
Most gladly would I give the blood-stain'd laurel
For the first violet of the leafless spring,
Pluck'd in those quiet fields where I have journey'd!
‘ *Octavio.* What ails thee? What so moves thee all at once?
‘ *Max.* Peace have I ne'er beheld? I *have* beheld it.
From thence am I come hither: O! that sight,
It glimmers still before me, like some landscape
Left in the distance,—some delicious landscape!
My road conducted me thro' countries where
The war has not yet reach'd. Life, life, my father—
My venerable father, Life has charms
Which *we* have ne'er experienc'd. We have been
But voyaging along it's barren coasts,
Like some poor ever-roaming horde of pirates,
That, crowded in the rank and narrow ship,
House on the wild sea with wild usages,
Nor know aught of the main land, but the bays
Where safeliest they may venture a thieves' landing.
Whate'er in th' inland dales the land conceals
Of fair and exquisite, O! nothing, nothing,
Do we behold of that in our rude voyage.
‘ *Octavio.* (*attentive, with an appearance of uneasiness*)——And
so your journey has reveal'd this to you?
‘ *Max.* 'Twas the first leisure of my life. O tell me,
What is the meed and purpose of the toil,
The painful toil, which robb'd me of my youth,
Left me an heart unsoul'd and solitary,
A spirit uninform'd, unornamented.
For the camp's stir and crowd and ceaseless larum,
The neighing war-horse, the air-shatt'ring trumpet,
The unvaried, still-returning hour of duty,
Word of command, and exercise of arms—
There's nothing here, there's nothing in all this
To satisfy the heart, the gasping heart!
Mere bustling nothingness, where the soul is not—
This cannot be the sole felicity,
These cannot be man's best and only pleasures!
‘ *Octavio.* Much hast thou learnt, my son, in this short journey.
‘ *Max.* O! day thrice lovely! when at length the soldier
Returns home into life; when he becomes
A fellow-man among his fellow-men.

The colours are unfurl'd, the cavalcade
Marshals, and now the buz is hush'd, and hark!
Now the soft peace-march beats, home, brothers, home!
The caps and helmets are all garlanded
With green boughs, the last plund'ring of the fields.
The city gates fly open of themselves,
They need no longer the petard to tear them.
The ramparts are all fill'd with men and women,
With peaceful men and women, that send onwards
Kisses and welcomings upon the air,
Which they make breezy with affectionate gestures.
From all the towers rings out the merry peal,
The joyous vespers of a bloody day.
O happy man, O fortunate! for whom
The well known door, the faithful arms are open,
The faithful tender arms with mute embracing.
‘ *Questenberg (apparently much affected).* O! that yo
speak
Of such a distant, distant time, and not
Of the to-morrow, not of this to-day.’

The other passages are taken from the last act of the play, immediately before the murder of Wallenstein:

‘ *Wallenstein (rises and strides across the saloon).* The ni
spent. Betake thee to thy chamber.
‘ *Countess.* Bid me not go, O let me stay with thee!
‘ *Wallenstein (moves to the window).* There is a busy
the Heaven,
The wind doth chace the flag upon the tower,
Fast fly the clouds, the sickle of the moon,
Struggling, darts snatches of uncertain light.
No form of star is visible! That one
White stain of light, that single glimm'ring yonder,
Is from Cassiopeia, and therein
Is Jupiter. (*A pause.*) But now
The blackness of the troubled element hides him! (*He
profound melancholy, and looks vacantly into the dis*
‘ *Countess (looks on him mournfully, then grasps his hand)*
art thou brooding on?
‘ *Wallenstein.* ———Methinks,
If I but saw him, 'twould be well with me.
He is the star of my nativity,
And often marvellously hath his aspect
Shot strength into my heart.
‘ *Countess.* Thou'lt see him again.
‘ *Wallenstein (remains for a while with absent mind, then
livelier manner, and turns suddenly to the Countes*
him again? O never, never again.
‘ *Countess.* How?
‘ *Wallenstein.* He is gone—is dust.
‘ *Countess.* Whom mean'st thou then?

‘ *W*

'*Wallenstein.* He the more fortunate! yea, he hath finish'd!
For him there is no longer any future—
His life is bright—bright without spot it *was*
And cannot cease to be. No ominous hour
Knocks at his door with tidings of mis-hap.
Far off is he, above desire and fear;
No more submitted to the change and chance
Of the unsteady planets. O 'tis well
With *him!* but who knows what the coming hour
Veil'd in thick darkness brings for us!
'*Countess.* ———Thou speakest
Of Piccolomini. What was his death?
The courier had just left thee, as I came. (*Wallenstein by a motion of his hand makes signs to her to be silent.*)
Turn not thine eyes upon the backward view,
Let us look forward into sunny days.
Welcome with joyous heart the victory,
Forget what it has cost thee. Not to day,
For the first time, thy friend was to thee dead;
To thee he died, when first he parted from thee.
'*Wallenstein.* This anguish will be wearied down, I know;
What pang is permanent with man? From th' highest,
As from the vilest thing of every day
He learns to wean himself: for the strong hours
Conquer him. Yet I feel what I have lost
In him. The bloom is vanish'd from my life.
For O! he stood beside me, like my youth,
Transform'd for me the real to a dream,
Cloathing the palpable and the familiar
With golden exhalations of the dawn.
Whatever fortunes wait my future toils,
The *beautiful* is vanish'd—and returns not.'

We own that the comparison of the crescent to a sickle does not convey a very delightful idea to our mind: nor do the expressions in the remainder of the sentence assimilate with this metaphor.

We have allowed an unusual length to this article, because we think that Mr. Coleridge is by far the [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] of the German theatre whose labours have come under our notice; and because we are glad to [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] of absurdity and extravagance from an author whose genius has so completely defied all rules.

ART. III. *Memoirs relative to Egypt*, [illegible] during the Campaigns of General Bonaparte, [illegible] and 1799, by the learned and scientific Men [illegible] French Expedition. Published [illegible] pp. 460. 8s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. [illegible]

ELEVATED as the public expectation has [illegible] literary and scientific fruits of the French [illegible]

Egypt, we are inclined to believe that the present volume of memoirs, though it is not barren of interest, will be perused with some feeling of disappointment. Whether that disappointment will arise from the extravagance of hope too inordinate for gratification, from a deficiency of effort on the part of the French, or from the impossibility of collecting in that invaded country much new matter for observation, time must discover. Considering the number of philosophic and professional men who accompanied Bonaparte into Egypt, little would appear to have been effected, if this volume were to be the whole account of their exertions and discoveries*. A more detailed and splendid work may in due time appear; and perhaps the present Memoirs are exhibited, *ad interim*, to allay the public curiosity. We do not call in question the authenticity of this publication; yet that it was in some measure an European manufacture might be inferred from the *Report on the Oases*, in which (at p. 349) *Mr. Brown's Travels* are mentioned as *then in the English press*†: not to remark that the report of M. Ripault on this subject is rather a history from books respecting these fertile islands in the sandy wastes, than any new information communicated by a recent observer. We are told that ‘ the Memoir of Ripault contains a number of useful observations supported by solid reasonings:’ but we are not informed what these observations and reasonings are; nor in what respects the choice of the Institute has been justified.

We find a Memoir relative to an optical phænomenon, known among the French mariners by the name of *Mirage*, and which the translator tells us (p. 5.) is usually denominated by the English navigators a *fog-bank*: but we should doubt whether this kind of *fog-bank* be at all similar to the *Mirage*. This phænomenon is exhibited by the sandy plains of Asia and Africa, when heated by the sun; and it displays to the eager eyes of the thirsty traveller, plains apparently covered with water, which gradually vanishes as the tantalized wanderer approaches. It is well described and scientifically explained in the present work: but we are not indebted to the French philosophers for the knowlege of its existence in Egypt and the circumjacent regions: since, though no author is here quoted, it is mentioned in the Koran, chap. xxiv.—by Diodorus Siculus, l. iii.—Quintus Curtius, l. vii. c. 5.—Dr. Shaw's Travels, quarto, p. 439.—Dr. Hyde, Annot. in Peritsol, &c.

The motto, *O quantum est in verbis inane!* may be prefixed to Denon's discourse on his return from Upper Egypt, which concludes the volume. It appears to tell much, while in fact it tells little or nothing; as will be evident from the most interesting paragraph which it contains:

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* Since this was written, we have heard of other publications from this source.

† How could this have been known to the Institute in Egypt?

> ' We approached *Thebes*—Thebes, the very name of which excites the recollection of great ideas. As if it had been possible that it could escape me, I delineated it at as great a distance as I could perceive it; and as I made this design, I indulged the hope, that you would one day participate the sentiment by which I was animated. We were obliged to traverse it rapidly, and scarcely had I viewed it a moment, when I was forced to quit it.
>
> ' There was a colossus which could only be measured by the eye, and by the astonishment which it occasioned. On the right were embowelled and sculptured mountains; on the left, temples, which, at more than a league's distance, appeared like other rocks; and palaces, like other temples, from which I was snatched. I turned round mechanically to seek for the hundred gates, a poetic expression, by which Homer intended to paint, in a single word, this superb city, loading the earth with the weight of its porticoes, and so large, that Egypt could scarcely contain its extent. Seven journies have not satisfied the curiosity excited by the first; and it was not before the fourth, that I reached the other bank of the river.'

If M. Denon has made seven journies to these stupendous monuments of antiquity, why does he content himself with merely relating his first and most unsatisfactory visit?

Allowing, however, the incompetency of this publication to satisfy the curiosity of those who are anxious for new and ample information, relative to the antiquities and present state of Egypt, it must yet be admitted that it contains a quantity of instructive matter; and that it may in general be very thankfully received. Most of the subjects treated in these papers relate to the arts, and to natural history. We have Memoirs on the manufacture of gun-powder—on Pompey's pillar—on the wing of the ostrich—on the Arabian horses—on the prevailing Ophthalmia of Egypt—on a new species of Nymphæa—on the colours of the sea—on the dying of cotton and flax, by means of the Carthamus—on the Lake Menzaleh—on the Tanitique branch of the Nile—on the valley of Natron—on the topography of the Dry River; on the Coptic monasteries* (an amusing paper)—on the Djeouaby Arabs, and the Bedouins—on the dying properties of the Hhenne—on processes for correcting the defects of particular kinds of steel and cast iron (a paper which has no reference to the Egyptian expedition)—on the use of oil in the plague—on the geographical position of Alexandria, and on the direction, variation, and dip of the magnetic needle—on the slime of the Nile—on the Fountain of Moses, &c.

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* See some account of these monasteries and their inhabitants, extracted from Sonnini's Travels in Egypt, in M. R. vol. xxx. N. S. p. 124, &c.

This enumeration of the contents is a sufficient intimation of the kind of amusement which may be expected from this volume. The subjects discussed may have afforded some employment to the French literati who accompanied Bonaparte to Egypt: but, as they have explored, under peculiar advantages, a country hitherto imperfectly known, on account of the dangers and difficulties to which the researches of European travellers have been exposed, we may reasonably expect a more particular description of the antiquities and present state of Egypt than has hitherto been exhibited.

The language of this work is sometimes pompous, as when we read of 'the water of a well being at its *maximum of elevation*;' and sometimes incorrect, as when mention is made of 'plowing in directions *perpendicular to* each other.' Do these improprieties attach to the translator, or are they the faults of the original?

Art. IV. *A General View of the Agriculture in the County of Perth;* with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. By James Robertson, D D. Minister at Callander in the County of Perth. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. 8vo. pp. 575. 8s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

As the several Reports of Counties drawn up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture have come before us, we have noticed with pleasure the commendable attention which is paid, in all parts, to the agricultural improvement of our "sea-girt isle;" and we congratulate the country at large, on the ability usually displayed by those gentlemen who have undertaken general views of particular districts. The county of Perth has been fortunate in its reporter. Dr. Robertson appears to have taken peculiar pains with his subject; he writes, he assures us, 'without bias or prejudice, unawed by fear, and unsolicitous of adulation;' and he seems, on the whole, to state facts with that fairness which cannot but incline us to respect his testimony. We are reminded, in the preface, that this work is 'a compilation partly from Mr. Marshall's Report of the central Highlands, Mr. Donaldson's of the Carse of Gowrie, and a Report of the Southern Districts, by the author, and partly from a new Survey of the Provinces which had not formerly been explored; together with Remarks transmitted to the Board in consequence of these Reports.'

Previously to our giving, as we have done in former instances, an abstract of some of the leading particulars contained in this View of Perthshire, we shall amuse our readers with Dr. R.'s encomium on agriculture in general:

> 'Of all the branches of natural philosophy, we know, that is the most important, which investigates the causes of the fertility of the earth, in producing sustenance for the human kind. Others may be more splendid; but this is the most useful. The knowledge of the causes and cure of diseases, incident to man, may claim the second place. Mechanics promote our convenience and safety in various respects; navigation, as founded on astronomy, facilitates our intercourse with distant nations. These and other branches of this wonderful system of the providence of the Creator, minister to our comfort, merit our attention and claim our gratitude; but agriculture alone feeds the lamp of life, and enables us to be capable of that gratitude, which is due to the Author of our being and of our well-being. She alone traces the footsteps of nature, and seconds her efforts, in providing us with food to eat and raiment to put on. She is the parent of society, and the nursing mother, to whose breasts we all cling, and in whose lap we are reared. She has made the desert a fruitful field; she has planted grain where forests grew; she clothes our land with grass for cattle and with the herb for the use of man. She fills our houses with plenty, our hearts with gladness, and puts into our hands the staff of life.'

The county of Perth is estimated to contain, in round numbers, 5000 square miles; which amount to 3,200,000 acres of Scots measure, or 4,068,640 English acres; and the mildness of its climate we are desired to infer from the following circumstances; that barley has been reaped in good order, nine weeks after it was sown; that sown grass has been in rick, on the 15th of May, O. S.; and on the 29th of the same month, six Scots pints of strawberries have been gathered in the open garden *.—Its soil is various.—Its mineral productions are coal, slate, lime, and free-stone; of which latter there was an excellent quarry at Kingoodie, where blocks were raised 50 feet in length, 16 broad, and 3 thick: but the act for imposing a duty on stone carried coast-ward, in 1794, has caused the work performed at this quarry to decline. Mention is also made of a valuable clay, superior in quality, for pottery and glass-house purposes, to that of Stourbridge in Worcestershire.—In the chapter on the *State of Property*, we are informed that a great proportion of the county is freehold; and that there are few counties in Scotland, in which the commoners are more distinguished by their education, their manners, their enlarged views, the love of their country, and the extent of their property. The farm-houses are not *now* mean hovels, without light and air, but are substantially built, having two floors, and *very few* want glass windows; yet the houses of the ordinary tenantry are still mean, the occupier and his cattle lodging under the same roof.

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* Are these facts, which may have taken place on particularly favoured spots, fair specimens of the general climature? Perhaps not, for at p. 61. the Doctor speaks of 'the sterile soil and inhospitable climate of North Britain.'

Besides the town of Perth, this county contains upwards of 70 towns and villages, some of which are very thriving; a most desirable thing for humanity, their inhabitants being, as Dr. R. observes, ' more *hardy* than the deformed spawn and jail sweepings of great towns.'—In the chapter on the mode of occupation, Dr. R., adverting to the state of society in former times as unpropitious to agricultural improvements, judiciously remarks that, though ' the parent of industry is the desire of comfort, yet industry can never flourish, nor bear fruit, unless the hedge of the law be planted around it.' He also notices the ancient kind of occupancy called *run-rig* *, which is giving way to better regulations, though much remains to be done for the improvement of the county.—The general average of the size of farms is from 100 to 300 acres.—Rent is for the most part doubled within these thirty years; its average, on the best soils, from 20 to 30 shillings an acre; *i. e.* Scots acre, or 6084 square yards; or about one-fifth more than an English acre, which is 4840 square yards. Moors and sheep-walks are rented not by the acre, but by the *soum* (a term denoting the pasture of a full grown cow) at an average of 7s. or 8s. a soum. The valued rent of the county is 332,412l. 3s. 4d. Scots.—Though there are no tithes in Scotland, many of the ministers have a certain proportion of their stipends paid in grain, from the produce of their parishes; and the remainder in money.

On the subject of *Poor-rates*, we shall transcribe a short passage, which merits the consideration of the inhabitants of South Britain. ' There is no such thing as poor-rates in this country, in the same sense, in which it is understood on the south side of the Tweed. The poor are generally supported by a voluntary charity collected from the parishioners every

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' * Not like the common fields in England or Scotland (as some suppose) where no boundaries are marked between the different possessors, but in alternate ridges, having a bank of waste land for the boundary between every two ridges; and to add to the evil, one farmer possessed this year, what his neighbour did possess the former. Not only farms, but in some instances estates were divided in this manner, especially when a property fell into the hands of co-heirs.'

Sabbath, together with the interest of sums bequeathed by pious persons for their use, some petty fines for breaches of decorum, certain dues for the proclamation of banns, the use of the mort-cloth (the pall) and other casualties. This fund is managed by the minister and elders, under the controul of the heritors of each parish.' To this a note is added: 'wherever poor-rates have been introduced, the amount of them has rapidly increased and debauchery flourished.'

As a spirit of improvement has diffused itself throughout Great Britain, we were not surprized to find that the aukward implements of agriculture are daily disappearing; and that implements constructed on judicious models are coming into use: but we were astonished to learn that 'threshing of corn by machinery has been practised in Perthshire for near half a century.'—Very few oxen are used for draught.—Inclosing has made a rapid progress within fifty years; yet three-fifths of the arable land remain open.—Mention is made of a larch hedge.—The advantage of *belting*, in this cold region, is particularly urged and illustrated.—Rotations of crops in some districts are specified: but it is confessed that, 'in many parts, the farmers have no regular rotation, but plow the land as long as it will carry any crop, and when it will not even carry oats they let it out to rest.' This is lamentable husbandry.

The cultivation of wheat is become general; and 10 bolls (or sacks) form a good average return. After so encouraging a statement, exceeding the average produce in Middlesex, we do not wonder that the culture of wheat should become general in Perthshire; yet we are told that oats are the grain most commonly sown; because they produce a tolerable crop, where often no other corn would succeed. Dr. Johnson's account of this grain is not now true, (see his Dictionary, art. *Oats*,) since, according to Dr. R., 'wheaten bread has very much supplanted the oat-cakes.'—Flax is cultivated to a considerable extent, since the amount of the stamped linen for this county is 248,619l. 6s. 8d.—Potatoes are also largely cultivated; and it was not uncommon, till forbidden by law, to extract a spirit from them.—We are informed, in the section on Turnips, that in some cases the fly is avoided by sowing the seeds of two different years; and the author also adds that 'he never saw turnips destroyed by vermin (he means, we suppose, the insect called the fly,) that were sown with lime.'—Rye grass and red clover are the artificial grasses in most esteem; sain-foin, lucern, and burnet, are not cultivated.

The pastures of the county of Perth on good land are thus described: 'They are as rich as in any part of Britain: the grass is as luxuriant, the pile as close, and the natural white clover and daisy as thick as they can stand.' In the chapter on Gardens and Orchards, we read of an orchard let for about 100l. a year, and of walnuts on a wall.—Though this reporter complains of the destruction of the Woods in former times, the county of Perth is not altogether denuded; there is one natural fir wood which covers 2566 acres of land; and it has more oak woods, and of greater value, than all the rest of Scotland. Dr. Robertson argues strenuously for the plantation of wastes and moors, by maintaining that the climate was milder in former times from its having been more wooded than at present; and that the inhabitants of the North have only to restore the same cause to produce the same effect.—The chapter on *Live Stock* informs us that the Perthshire cows are in general of a bad breed; that the sheep are numerous, amounting to 222,000; that there are some red-deer in the forests; that dove-cots are rare, (which Dr. R. considers as a favourable circumstance, since a pigeon will consume, in two or three days, grain equal to its value,) and that bees thrive in the sheltered parts of the hilly country.

The chapter on *Rural Economy* states the price of labour to have been doubled within the last twenty-five years; that common labourers earn between one shilling and one shilling and three pence a day; and that the average price of butcher's meat is from three pence to five pence the lb. Dutch weight (1 [illegible] oz.).—Under the head of *Political Economy*, are classed Roads, Canals, and Embankments, Fairs, Weekly Markets, Commerce, Manufactures, Poor *, and Population; which last is stated to be in an increasing state, and to amount at present, for the whole county, to 143,123. The Obstacles to Improvement are stated to be Intermixture of Land, Runrig, unascertained boundaries of Estates, Servitudes, Thirlage †, Shortness of Leases, Distance from Manure, and Commons; not to mention loose and vague contracts between landlord and tenants, and clumsy and cheap implements of husbandry. Since, however, in his section on *The Genius of the People of the County of Perth*, the Doctor compliments them as having a spirit of Improvement, it may be presumed that these obstacles will in a great measure be removed; and that his hints for the amelioration of the County will be honoured with that attention which they seem to merit.

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* The author reprobates the encouragement given by *weak* Christians to vagrants; and the bad policy of magistrates in contenting themselves with turning them out of their respective parishes, to become nuisances to others. He thinks that every parish should have a bridewell to confine to hard labour all idle and dissolute vagrants. All who can work, and will not, should be made to work,

† This is an exorbitant mulcture for the benefit of a mill to grind their corn; see p. 396.

Respecting the discriminating features of the County of Perth, the following remarks occur in the preliminary observations

'The land, to which this survey refers, seems to divide that part of Scotland on the south, which is generally adapted to the raising of grain, from that on the north, which, with few exceptions, is more fitted for pasture.

'It is also singular, that the county under review divides those parts of the kingdom on the north, where firs abounded in former times, which are still found in the mosses, from those in the south, which carried oaks and a variety of other wood, but no firs, so far as I have ever heard. Nature herself, which never errs, appears to have clad our bleak mountains with a mantle, which is for ever green; while she had planted trees, which shed their leaves, where ornament and shelter were less necessary, lest perhaps the verdure of the ground would be too much intercepted from the eye of man.

'In this county is the boundary between those parts of Britain, where coal has been discovered, and these, where coal has not hitherto been found; that useful fossil, which is so necessary for the comfort of the southern districts, being less requisite in the north, where extensive forests of the pine, the best of all fuel, formerly grew, and still grow spontaneously.

'Here is also the division betwixt the granite and the free stone; there being no free stone north of us, and the granite less frequent than the free stone on the south. Our hewing-stone quarries gradually harden, as you approach the Grampians.

'Slates, that beautiful covering for houses, are found in few parts of Britain, south of this county.

'Another distinguishing feature of this county is, that it contains more oak-woods, than are to be found in all the other counties of North Britain.'

The Report concludes, as it began, with the praises of Agriculture; and with assuring the writer's countrymen, that great advantages will result from their adopting his line of cultivation.

An Appendix, including a variety of useful papers, is subjoined: but, unlike the other County Reports, this volume is illustrated by no plates, (though references are made to some,) nor with even a map of the county. It wants also a table of contents, and a glossary of provincialisms. There is indeed, at the beginning, a good table of weights and measures, with an index at the end: but this latter is very defective. Scotticisms abound, such as 'a quarry is *broke upon*;' 'to *raise an action*,' for to enter an action; 'sowing their *corns*,' for corn; 'land *sown out*;' '*followed out*;' '*unsimilar*;' 'beyond my power *to condescend* e main point in farming, never to be forgotten, is *to grow inter-provision adequate to the support of such a stock of cattle, with their dung will keep the farm in constant good heart.*'

More than a hundred pages are employed in describing the *ature and Management of Domestic Animals or Live Stock.* ere the author presumes on his experience, speaks as it were *cathedrâ*, and talks of 'orthodoxy and anathema,' and of certain points, out of the pale of which, no animal should be ved.' Passing over such language and such allusions in an ricultural treatise, we shall content ourselves with copying s marks of goodness of shape:

> '*General symmetry and harmony of parts; that is to say, an equal and nal union of length, depth, and substance;—the head not large, or neatly shaped;—eyes full and clear;—neck not long, but inclining , decreasing, or tapering towards the head;—chest wide and full; no means long, fore ones straight, the shanks clean and fine;—nd sound, the toes turned neither in nor out;—girth deep; back straight and broad;—Belly capacious, without swagging;—p and capacious, the flesh reaching down to the hocks, from legs forming an angle, the feet will stand sufficiently under the ance as great, at least, between the hinder as fore feet.*'

comment on this text, and for many other useful ve to breeding and choosing cattle, we must refer to self; which is written with as much sprightliness as d in a farming book, and with not a few of the vulgarisms; such as, 'no more worse than nothing ting *through the nose*,' and, 'dunging to *the tune of* acre,' &c. The author talks, moreover, of the ly or weekly *bible-excursions*;' by which, perhaps, he s (aukwardly enough) the farmer's reading of his

Plan of a Farm Yard fronts the title, but its value y its not being made to any scale.

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e History of Berwick upon Tweed, including a short the Villages of Tweedmouth and Spittal, &c. By M. D. Berwick. 8vo. pp. 670. 7s. 6d. Boards; er, 10s. 6d.) Butterworth, &c. London. 1799.

k is dedicated to Sir John Sinclair, on whose sta- account of Scotland the author bestows the most praise. He seems, indeed, in this history of Ber- follow Sir John's example; and from a com- the form[illegible] present state of the agricul- of hi[illegible] town, to propose what he [illegible] proving [illegible], and of pro- moting *condescend upon,*' &c. All these circumstances, however, are "dust on the scale," compared with the intrinsic merit of the work, which must remain a convincing testimony of Dr. R.'s industry and good sense; and if he has manifested some partiality in his statements, they may be attributed to the commendable view of stimulating his countrymen to the most laudable exertions.

ART. V. *The New Farmer's Calendar; or Monthly Remembrancer,* for all kinds of Country Business: comprehending all the material Improvements in the New Husbandry, with the Management of Live Stock. Inscribed to the Farmers of Great Britain. By a Farmer and Breeder. 8vo. pp. 616. 9s. Boards. Symonds. 1800.

IN the business of farming, no extensive and accurate knowlege can be acquired without experience: but, since experience, in this as in other cases, keeps a dear school, the information to be derived from books is not to be despised; for it may at least aid us in making experiments, and assist us in turning them to a better account than otherwise we should be able to do. What, indeed, is a well-written practical agricultural work, but a record or memorial of the processes of others; and of the maxims, principles, and general rules which the experimenters have deduced from them? Farming, as a science, has its basis in certain doctrines or principles; and though their application may be extremely various, it is not unadvisable to found our practice on a knowlege of them. The more they are considered by practical men, the more perfect and beneficial will be the operations of husbandry; and for this reason, we think that the country may congratulate itself on the publication of so many agricultural books as have lately appeared; which, though of different merit, will all contribute to awaken general discussion, and to diffuse a truly useful species of knowlege.

The volume before us is a summary of agricultural information, which will be acceptable to young farmers; especially the *Calendar* part, which details the business required to be done on a farm, in each month, from January to December. The author might perhaps be no loser by offering to the public the 140 pages containing this *Monthly Calendar*, as a distinct work. It affords, in a short compass, a number of useful hints; which may not only be of great service to the inexperienced, but may tend to superinduce an habit of attention and regularity on those who have for years been accustomed to the farming business. An idea of the Calendar may be formed from a single specimen of the *Notitiæ* prefixed to the instructions for each month.

‘ JANUARY.

‘ The general course of business upon a farm, during the present month, is as follows: *Threshing—Superintendance of Cattle—Cartage of Manure or Earth—Road Work—Making or repairing Fences—Draining—Repairs of any kind befitting the Season—Sawing and preparing Timber for Use—Destruction of Vermin, or, in short, any useful Application of the Servants and Team, in order to profit by the opportunity of all tillage being at a stand.*’

In the section of the Calendar which exhibits the work required in *June*, the author shews his wish of having no time lost during the season of ingathering; and he therefore endeavours to encourage farmers to work, at hay and harvest-time, on Sundays: observing that there is an old law still in force on our statute book, permitting the farmer, at these seasons, to make use of the seventh day. As this statute is not mentioned in *Burn*, (the book generally consulted in the country,) the writer should have given a particular reference to it.

The notices relative to the months of *July* and *August* contain hints to young farmers not to think of ‘ *penny-wise* savings in time of harvest, as these may prove *pound-foolishness*;’ and moreover ‘to agree with their mowers and reapers, both at hay and harvest time, to finish their work by cutting down all the weeds in the hedge rows.’

The remaining part of the volume, which is a compilation from other agricultural works, combined with the author's own observation and experience, abounds with useful hints and remarks under the following heads—Hiring and stocking Farms—Soils and Manures—Implements of Husbandry,—Draining, Fencing—Farm-Yard, Form, and Management—Vermin—Irrigation and Warping—Woods and Plantations—Tillage and Fallowing—Drill Husbandry—Dibbling Seed—Blights—Course of Crops—Cattle Crops—Winter preservation of roots, &c.—Meadow and Pasture—Live Stock, Breeding, and Improvement—Horses, Neat Cattle, Sheep, Swine, Rabbits, Poultry, &c.

Of gentleman-farming, and on the new husbandry, the author thus writes:

‘ In the conduct of the farming business, it has always been the fashion to lay much stress on the difference between the gentleman and the labouring farmer, and to allow a decided superiority to the latter, nay, even to deny all possibility of the former deriving profit from the practice of husbandry. The matter has been improperly stated. Nothing can be more true, than that the man, whether gentleman or farmer, who determines to remain ignorant of his business, and who indolently suffers himself to be cheated through the nose, will have a fair chance to be everlastingly unsuccessful. But grant the gentleman a moderate portion of the science of agriculture, and a decent competency of activity and resolution, and I conceive the balance will preponderate even heavily on his side, whatever may be the quantity of lands, from a cabbage-garden, to a farm of a thousand acres. The personal labour, and superintendance, of the meer common farmer, in the old beaten track, can never stand in competition with the advantages of the new husbandry, of the most productive kinds of live stock, of an ample portion of manure, and of the garden cleanness of the hoe-culture.

'Agriculture viewed in a trading light, perhaps makes as ample a return for the use of money, as any domestic concern whatever; and although such be not the general custom, it is easy enough of proof, that very great capitals, to the amount of twenty, thirty, or forty thousand pounds, and upwards, might be safely and prosperously employed upon an extensive farm. The cultivator of two thousand acres, who should fully stock according to the principles of the new husbandry, breed and fat his own cattle, consuming all his spring-corn at home; bacon his hogs, and meal his own wheat, would find occasion for sums of very high account. His articles being all those of the first necessity, and being without the obligation of allowing credit, the profits would be more certain, and the risks less, than in any mercantile concern.

'In what consists the new husbandry, so often quoted by agricultural writers, without a definition?—In allotting certain portions of an arable farm to the purpose of summer and winter feeding a stock of cattle, sufficient with their dung to manure and fertilize the whole of the land. In the eradicating, as far as possible, all useless vegetation with the hoe. In the use of the various improved, or newly invented implements, for the purpose of expediting, or abridging labour, and in the judicious selection of domestic animals.

'The usage of the old husbandry, (too generally prevalent indeed at this hour) is to place very little dependance on the profit of live stock, to feed very few, excepting those animals absolutely necessary for labour; to reject the hoe-culture, perhaps altogether, to foul the land by repeated corn-crops, and to clean it partially and insufficiently, by summer-fallows, or seed it in its foul state, for a temporary ley.'

The author opposes the doctrine of *Fallowing*, supported by Mr. Boys and Mr. Pitt in their County Surveys, (see Rev. vol. xxxi. p. 29.) and he contends that 'the earth requires no rest, but rather exercise and good nourishment.' P. 326. Though, however, this be a good principle generally to inculcate, it may not be wise universally to apply it. In these and other matters, farmers must feel their way.

Under the head of Course of Crops, it is observed, '*that man follows the best course, who drains, pulverizes, and cleans his land, keeping it in constant heart with animal manure;* and that the main point in farming, never to be forgotten, is *to grow winter-provision adequate to the support of such a stock of cattle, as with their dung will keep the farm in constant good heart.*'

More than a hundred pages are employed in describing the *Nature and Management of Domestic Animals or Live Stock.* Here the author presumes on his experience, speaks as it were *ex cathedrâ*, and talks of 'orthodoxy and anathema,' and of 'certain points, out of the pale of which, no animal should be saved.' Passing over such language and such allusions in an agricultural treatise, we shall content ourselves with copying his marks of goodness of shape:

> '*General symmetry and harmony of parts; that is to say, an equal and proportional union of length, depth, and substance;—the head not large, or long, but neatly shaped;—eyes full and clear;—neck not long, but inclining to thinness, decreasing, or tapering towards the head;—chest wide and full;—legs by no means long, fore ones straight, the shanks clean and fine;—feet even and sound, the toes turned neither in nor out;—girth deep; back and loins straight and broad;—Belly capacious, without swagging;—quarters deep and capacious, the flesh reaching down to the hocks, from which, the legs forming an angle, the feet will stand sufficiently under the loins;—distance as great, at least, between the hinder as fore feet.*'

For the comment on this text, and for many other useful ideas relative to breeding and choosing cattle, we must refer to the work itself; which is written with as much sprightliness as can be desired in a farming book, and with not a few of the agricultural vulgarisms; such as, 'no more worse than nothing at all,' 'cheating *through the nose*,' and, 'dunging to *the tune of* 40 loads per acre,' &c. The author talks, moreover, of the farmer's 'daily or weekly *bible-excursions*;' by which, perhaps, he would express (aukwardly enough) the farmer's reading of his bible.

A ground Plan of a Farm Yard fronts the title, but its value is diminished by its not being made to any scale.

Art. VI. *The History of Berwick upon Tweed,* including a short Account of the Villages of Tweedmouth and Spittal, &c. By John Fuller, M. D. Berwick. 8vo. pp. 670. 7s. 6d. Boards; (on fine Paper, 10s. 6d.) Butterworth, &c. London. 1799.

This work is dedicated to Sir John Sinclair, on whose statistical account of Scotland the author bestows the most unqualified praise. He seems, indeed, in this history of Berwick, to wish to follow Sir John's example; and from a comprehensive view of the former and present state of the agriculture and commerce of his native town, to propose what he conceives to be the best means of improving both, and of promoting the real happiness of the inhabitants, by directing their attention to those objects in which they are most deeply interested. This design is no doubt truly benevolent and patriotic: but surely it was not necessary, in order to impress on the reader's mind the importance and utility of agriculture, to give an account of man in a savage state; nor to present us with various other observations which here occur, and which seem to originate in the professional bias of the author's ideas.

The new system of education, which Dr. Fuller recommends for our farmers, will appear rather singular: but it is worthy of consideration:

> 'When we contemplate the faculty which our incomprehensible store-house of ideas and of knowledge possesses, in that the more it receives and lays up, its capacity and desire for receiving more, especially if the matter be pure and instructive, increases in proportion, and the powers of retention are thereby enlarged and strengthened; our souls are filled with astonishment and a soothing awe. The husbandman ought, in his turn, to go into the schools, and taking up the pen and compasses, make himself master of the elements of mathematics, with their application to mechanics; he must afterwards resort to the chemical elaboratory, where, plying diligently until he acquires a thorough knowledge of the most essential doctrines of chemistry, let him attend the academical chair on agriculture in the University of Edinburgh; after all which, he will return to the culture of the earth furnished with a stock of geometrical and chemical information, which, being founded on certain data, standing the test of demonstrative proof, he will thereby be enabled scientifically to comprehend the construction and powers of all the utensils used in husbandry, and by which he will be enabled to add to their improvement. By chemical analysis it will be greatly in his power to evolve and discover the nature and properties of which the different soils are composed, and also the chemical principles of all the various manures. From these acquisitions, and the knowledge he will derive from the professor's lectures, he will thence be enabled to determine what manures are adapted to certain soils, and in what proportions they ought to be used. By all which, combined with the knowledge to be derived from experience, he will then find himself capable of forming a more fixed and regular system, founded on the principles of consistency and truth, which must lead to a more successful practice of farming.'

As the Doctor seems to be a friend to learning, he will not accuse us of pedantry, if we observe that Xenophon in his *Oeconomics* appears to entertain very different sentiments of the education, manners, and habits of a farmer, in the fine character which he has drawn of Ischomachus: but we do not mean to say that the opinions of Xenophon, on this subject, should be the opinions of these days.

Dr. Fuller next assigns ten causes for the slow progress that has been made in the science of agriculture, until of *late* years:—but he omits one which has been considered by some able writers as the most important;—the preference that has been given to manufactures in many states of Europe, particularly in France during the administration of Colbert. As we have not leisure to examine this intricate subject as it deserves, we shall proceed to the next chapter; which contains an account of the situation and extent of the town, with a description of the scenery of the neighbourhood. The most pleasing part of the description may be found in the following extract:

'The luxuriant verdure of the banks of the Tweed and adjoining fields, together with Spring Gardens, enrich and embellish this interesting piece of scenery.

'These gardens are situated about half a mile from the farther extremity of the suburb of the town, and stretch along the steep banks of the north side of the river. They enjoy much of the genial warmth of the sun from their so completely facing that animating luminary. From whatever quarter these Gardens are viewed in the vernal and summer months, the several little clumps of planting, which are irregularly interspersed through them, some being situated on projecting eminences, and others shooting forth their exuberant foliage, from natural excavations, impart to the whole a considerable degree of rural simplicity, and no small share of a romantic and picturesque appearance.

'The scenery of this district of the Tweed will, in the course of a few years, derive much additional richness and ornament from those plantations which have lately been made by Sir Francis Blake, from the banks at New Water Haugh along the side of the river, and which extend nearly to those young plantings situated on the west side of Spring Gardens. Hallydown Hill, famous in the history of Berwick, is distinctly seen from many parts of the walls and the immediate vicinity of the town, being distant from it two miles north by west. This eminence fully commands the whole of the town and quay: were the top of it planted with trees, it would become an useful object, as it would afford an excellent land-mark for ships at sea, and would also greatly heighten the scenery of the neighbourhood. The rich inclosed fields intervening between Tweedmouth and Ord House, through which there is a pleasant foot road leading to the village of East Ord, look beautiful and enlivening viewed from the ramparts and other places of the town.

'In looking down the river, either from Spring Gardens or the Old Castle, we are presented with a scene truly picturesque and captivating, composed of the Bridge with its fifteen arches, several windings of the Tweed, most part of Berwick, and all Tweedmouth and Spittal. Standing in either of these situations, and extending the view farther in the same direction, we distinctly behold Holy Island, with its castle, situated at the extremity of the bay, about ten miles distant by sea, and twelve by land. In a clear day, we plainly perceive the houses, the sandy beach, and the foaming surf on the western parts of the island. In some states of the atmosphere, the castle appears in the figure of a large cone, suspended between heaven and the ocean, forming a singular and romantic object, from which the eye cannot withdraw itself without reluctance. In exercising the powers of vision, in a south-east direction from the island, Bamborough Castle, built on stupendous perpendicular rocks, overlooking the sea, twenty miles distant from Berwick by land, appears in all the solemnity of rude magnificence. From all the northern and eastern parts of the ramparts, we have a most complete and interesting view of the bay, German Ocean, the island and castles just now noticed. Across the Tweed, near its junction with the sea, the land to the southward opens for several miles upon the view, but the variegated colourings of nature, succeeding to cultivation, are lost in the distant prospect. The beauties, too, of the landscape lie in confused arrangement; and frequently the whole is enveloped and totally obscured in sea vapour. The richest prospects which Berwick has to boast of are those from the Bridge, particularly during the time of fishing salmon; the richness of these views consists, in the first place, in the transparent Tweed, with stately majesty, gliding down between its proud, luxuriant, grassy banks. This enchanting river, after making many artless and beautiful windings, disembogues its waters into the German Ocean, and thereby produces a conflux and seeming discord with it; the point of which may be said to be manifested in the raging and roaring billows on the bar.'

The second chapter gives the history of the town, and abounds with many curious and interesting events. The 3d relates to public buildings, and offers little that can interest those who are not immediately connected with the town and the neighbourhood. The 4th contains an account of the constitution and government of Berwick. The 5th treats of the population of the town; whence it appears that, 50 years ago, the number of inhabitants amounted to 3816, and in the year 1796, from the most accurate calculations that could be made, the population did not fall short of 7930, and it is still increasing. The ecclesiastical state, which is the subject of the 6th chapter, is comprised in a few pages, containing nothing very remarkable.

It must be a subject of pleasing reflection to a humane and benevolent mind, that every town in the kingdom can boast of some public charities; and Berwick appears not to have been deficient in donations. The state of the poor, however, according to Dr. Fuller's account, (in chap. 7,) may admit of some melioration; although the regulations respecting diet and clothing appear to be judicious. The 8th chapter is very short, containing an account of the public schools, and places of education. The 9th is confined to the revenue, and the 10th to the military department. The 11th and 12th chapters are more generally interesting, as the former relates to manufactures and trade, and the latter to the fisheries. The following account of the method of sending salmon from Berwick to London may convey information to some of our readers:

> 'All the salmon sent to London from this place, were, till of late, boiled and put into kits; but that practice has, for some years past, been laid aside. The whole of the salmon are now sent in ice, which has been discovered to preserve the fish fresh for a long time. How this came to be first known in Berwick was owing to the following circumstance: Mr. Dempster, a member of Parliament, about twelve years ago, calling on Mr. John Richardson of Perth, at his fishery, told him, it was a practice on the continent to pack salmon in ice, as it had been found to preserve them so fresh that they might be sent many hundred miles without spoiling. This induced Mr. Richardson to make the trial; the result of which not only corroborated the fact, but also proved to be very lucrative to Mr. Richardson.
>
> 'The same experiment was made here, and with success, in the year 1788. Since that period several ice houses * have been built in this plan; and the quantity of ice put into them yearly is astonishing. The two Companies laid in 7600 cart loads between them last winter; expence about 450 l. for ice. There are 32 salmon coopers in Berwick.'

The two succeeding chapters relate to the police, manners and customs; of which the author gives a pleasing representation.

Here Dr. Fuller concludes his remarks on the town; and the remaining part of the volume consists of a short account of the present agricultural state of the country part of the district; from which we extract the subsequent particulars:

> 'The following courses constitute the general system of husbandry practised in the parish:
>
> 1. Grass land or Lee.
> 2. Oats.
> 3. Potatoes.
> 4. Wheat.
> 5. Turnip.
> 6. Barley and grass seed.
>
> Or,
>
> 1. Lee.
> 2. Oats.
> 3. Turnip or potatoes.
> 4. Wheat or barley and grass seeds.
> 5. Clover, once, sometimes twice, cut.
> 6. Wheat.
> 7. Beans.
> 8. Barley and grass seeds.

'* The aspect of ice houses should be towards the east, or south-east, for the advantage of the morning sun to expel the damp air, as that is more pernicious than warmth; for which reason trees, in the vicinity of an ice house, tend to its disadvantage. The best soil for an ice house to be made in is chalk, as it conveys away the waste water without any artificial drain; next to that, loose stony, earth, or gravelly soil. Its situation should be on the side of a hill, for the advantage of entering the cell upon a level.'

Or,

1. Lee.
2. Oats.
3. Potatoes or turnip.
4. Wheat.
5. Beans or pease, or barley with grass seeds.

'The subjoined course is proposed to be made trial of by one farmer in the Borough.

1. Fallow.
2. Wheat, with grass seeds.
3. Clover.
4. Drilled Beans.
5. Wheat.
6. Turnip or potatoes.
7. Barley and grass seeds, or wheat and grass seeds.

'We only know of one farmer who takes two white crops after grass. This person keeps one third of his farm in grass and two thirds in tillage.'—

'*Soil, Manures, Produce, Rent.*

'The soil of the in-field land of the township is a deep rich loam.

'Barley lands get three ploughings, and, if very foul, four, but this is seldom requisite.

'The manures mostly employed are horse and cow dung.

'The lands produce very weighty crops, especially the fields which lie along the side of the river, and the grain is of an exceedingly good quality.

'Potatoes are raised here in great quantities. The cottagers pay from 5l. 10s. to 6l. 10s. per acre besides tythe.

'The rent of the lands is about two guineas an acre besides tythe.

'The Common being now divided, that perplexing, unnatural, and oppressive privilege of inter-common is annihilated; and every person who is interested in the institution of equable laws and the cause of virtue—in personal safety and security of property, must rejoice, that, by the division of this Common, a lurking place is cut off from the profligate and abandoned.'

Miscellaneous observations follow, with a dissertation on those sciences which appear to be most intimately connected with the improvement of a country, and the advancement of the human mind. In the *Conclusion*, on the advantages and means of improvement, we find many remarks and propositions which appear to merit the consideration of the inhabitants and magistrates of this place.—An Appendix contains a copy of the charter of the town.—Several neat engravings, and a plan of Berwick, decorate the volume.

As this is the first statistical account of any town in England, the author is certainly intitled to praise for the undertaking; and the manner in which he has arranged his materials will probably meet with general approbation. He is also to be applauded for the attention which he has bestowed on the subject, for the accuracy and importance of his information, and for a number of useful and practical observations. On the other hand, he is sometimes too prolix, seems to affect a pos of language and an ostentation of learning, and his style is not unfrequently defective in perspicuity and polish. It is with reluctance, however, that we pass any censure on the work of a man who appears to be actuated by the best motives, and whose knowlege claims our respect.

Art. VII. *Pictures of Poetry; Historical, Biographical, and Critical.* By Alex. Thomson, Esq. Author of Whist, and the Paradise of Taste *. Crown 8vo. pp. 250. 5s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh, and sold in London by Longman and Rees. 1799.

This small work forms only part of a plan in which the author designs, if the reception of this effort should encourage him to persevere, to give a complete view of the advancement of polite literature, from the earliest account to the present time. The volume now offered to us chiefly relates to the literature of Greeee, including also that of the Hebrews. It commences with a sketch of the court of Solomon, and ends with that of Ptolemy Philadelphus. The great variety of subjects, which such a plan must necessarily comprehend, are here divided into fourteen different poems; or, as the author calls them, *Pictures*; each comprizing all the anecdotes, historical and biographical, which he had collected relating to the particular topic denominating the poem: such for instance as 'Sappho, and the Triumphs of Female Genius'—'Homer and Hesiod, or the Utility of Poetry'—'Honours paid to Poetry, or Treatment of the Athenian Captives in Sicily,' &c. The second division of the work will treat of Roman Literature; the third will be occupied by the middle ages; and the fourth by the letters and poetry of the last three centuries.

Among the circumstances which may secure to this undertaking a favourable reception, in this age of indolent levity, is the *variety* which it holds out to attract attention; and which is to be found not only in the matter, but in the measure and composition of the work: some of the pieces being in blank verse †, some in the common couplet measure, some lyric, and

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* See M. R. vol. vi. N. S. p. 401. and vol. xxi. p. 274.

† In the arduous attempt to write blank verse, in which so few succeed, Mr. T. has been more unsuccessful than in any other portion of his work. Of the prosaic nature of his lines, the following instances will suffice:

'On hearing this, his Pupils did not chuse
To trust themselves within.—One of the two
Had often brav'd the shouts of enemies,
And tumult of the battle.'—

—'let

and some exhibiting two several modes of verse in the same poem. It must be confessed, however, that another kind of variety occurs here, which is not so likely to conciliate approbation;—viz. variety of *merit;* passages frequently presenting themselves, which have nothing to relieve the prosaic tameness that marks both the thought and the expression, while in others certainly we find true poetic imagery, sentiment, and measure. The reader may judge of the truth of these observations from a few specimens. The first we shall take from the picture of the Utility of Poetry; in which the author endeavours to claim religion as a theme for the Muse:

‘In vain would critics, ev'n of highest name[*],
The sacred Muse's dignity defame;
To aid Devotion's task her pow'r deny,
And to the ground her grov'ling pinions tie.
In vain to her impute the faults of those
Who woo'd her smiles, but woo'd in rhyming prose;
Who, wanting wings of energy and might,
Would fain have soar'd to some unusual height,
But dropt immediate down, and clos'd their shameful flight.
Thus on that creeping, dull, presumptuous race,
And not on her, redounds the dire disgrace.
What wonder then, if Waller's feeble tongue,
To childish love, and courtly trifles, strung,
Sunk, when he tried his slender voice to raise
Beneath the weight of Love's celestial praise[†].
Or what if Cowley, whose outrageous wit
Could ne'er to judgment or to taste submit,
Disgrac'd the theme he labour'd to adorn,
And made his David's tale the critic's scorn[‡]?
It was not thus, when Milton's voice began
To sing of Eden lost by guilty man:
Him on her wings celestial rapture bore
To heights which mortal never reach'd before:

——— ‘let us, in haste, proceed,
Till we the Portico of Pallas reach;
In which, besides my ordinary band
Of pupils, I expect to-day to find
One who has long been absent from that school.
Young Alcibiades was to be there
An hour ere noon.’—
——— ‘Their steps were now
Directed to the Forum; where a crowd
Already was assembled.’— — — — &c. &c.

‘[*] See Dr. Johnson's strictures on this subject in his Life of Waller. Lives of the Poets, Vol. I. p. 397, &c.’

‘[†] Waller's Poem on Divine Love is here alluded to.’

‘[‡] See Johnson's Critique on the Davideis in his Life of Cowley.’

Heav'n's awful splendours to his sight display'd,
And all the horrors of the infernal shade.
It was not thus, when Young, in gloom embow'r'd[*],
His nightly song of Lamentation pour'd;
And sought at last, from each domestic grief,
In fair Religion's hopes, a sure relief;
When he display'd Redemption's wond'rous plan,
And prov'd, beyond a doubt, Immortal Man.
What'er in him correcter Taste may blame
'Tis sure no want of Ardour's holy flame.
It was not thus, when Pope's harmonious lyre,
Caught from Isaiah's lips the hallow'd fire[†]:
Nor thus, when Addison, with polish'd care,
Made Moon and Stars their wond'rous birth declare[‡]:
Nor yet when Thomson breath'd his grateful soul
To Him at whose command the Seasons roll,
In that exalted hymn which crowns the finish'd whole.
And still when bards like these, such subjects choose,
No want of vigour shall depress the Muse;
But other Miltons, other Youngs arise,
And lift their raptur'd audience to the skies;
And teach them, soaring on Devotion's wings,
To look contemptuous down on sublunary things.'

The following extract is from the Picture of 'Homer the Rhapsodist:' this piece is entirely lyric:

'While thus o'er Battle's hateful hues,
He pour'd the splendour of his Muse,
Deck'd with glory's glitt'ring wreath,
Ev'ry savage deed of death,
And ev'ry gaping, ghastly wound,
To Music's richest notes attun'd;
Each youthful bosom caught the infectious rage
That stream'd incessant from his magic lyre,
Some haughty foeman would in thought engage,
And check his fury with their martial fire.

'But now to more terrific themes,
To fabling Fancy's wilder dreams,
The pow'rful bard devotes his changing lyre;
In combat vain how Thetis' child
Against the whelming river toil'd,

'[*] ——— In darkness I'm embow'r'd;
Delightful gloom.' Night Thoughts, V. 204.

'[†] Who touch'd Isaiah's hallow'd lips with fire.'—
Pope's Messiah, 6.

'[‡] Alluding to his elegant and well known hymn:
The spacious Firmament on high.'

Till Vulcan, aided with the strength of fire [*];
How Sparta's prince, his fortune to explore,
Enthrall'd the changeful wizard of the sea;
Heard him, a serpent hiss, a lion roar,
Blaze in a flame, and blossom in a tree [†];
The Cyclops' gloomy cave then rose to view,
And all the horrors of his bloody meal;
The blank despair that seiz'd Ulysses' crew,
While in their fellows' fate their own they feel,
  Until their dauntless monarch sage,
  With hopes of safety, rous'd their rage;
  When all with beating hearts drew nigh,
  And, on the sleeping monster's eye,
The fiery vengeance sudden taught to fall,
And quench'd, in endless night, his solitary ball [‡].

' What next he sung was Circe's sea-girt bow'r,
  And how the same undaunted chief
  Withstood the charms of magic pow'r,
  And to his comrades brought relief;
When all had lost the human face divine,
Transformed by wicked arts to grov'ling swine [§].
Then how with vain regret the hero saw,
Betwixt fell Scylla and Charybdis dire,
Crush'd in the wat'ry monsters boiling maw,
Six brave companions wretchedly expire [||];
How Fate's command constrains him next to steer
Down to the dusky regions of the dead,
To hold high converse with the Theban seer,
And shows him there his mother's mournful shade,
With many a hero old, and heroine's ghost,
Which glide in shadowy shoals along the dreary coast [¶].

' While thus the lyre, with heav'nly tongue,
    Words of wildest wonder sung,
      Each Girl and Boy,
      With eager joy,
  Around its master fondly hung,
In deep attention to the thrilling strain,
They drank each accent up with eager ear,
And felt, with strange delight, through ev'ry vein,
The chilling progress of the frost of fear.'

We should not expect, from the author of this poem, such a couplet as this, which closes one of his compositions:

' But lest our readers should their patience lose
Here, for the present, let us *halt*, oh Muse!'

' [*] Iliad xxi. [†] Odyssey iv. [‡] Odyssey ix. [§] Odyssey x. [||] Odyssey xii. [¶] Odyssey xi.'

The piece on the *Madness of Poets* is the only one that is written in the measure there adopted; and it seems well fitted for the anecdotes which it retails. For example;

'In spite of all this, yet we cannot deny
The Madness of some of the fanciful fry.
Lucretius, for one, an example affords,
Not so easy to clothe in the decentest words;
The hand of his Mistress presented the bowl,
Whose contents quite unsettled his rational soul:
By the succours of art, she desir'd to improve
His natural relish for matters of Love;
Which the reader will see was sufficiently strong,
If he reads the Fourth Book of his wonderful Song.
But the drugs were too fierce for his volatile brains:
The Love is soon quench'd, but the Madness remains;
Distraction succeeds to his amorous rage,
And long ere his time drives him off from the Stage [*].
'The Bard, who in Epic and Pastoral shin'd,
Had his intellects also by Love undermin'd;
Poor Tasso: who sigh'd for too lofty a Dame,
And reap'd only despair as the fruit of his flame;
Hence that mental disease which reveal'd to his eye
Such objects as no other mortal could spy;
And brought to him daily, at Lunacy's hour,
That affable Sprite, that invisible Pow'r,
Who convers'd with him long, and, the conference o'er,
Was conducted with all due respect to the door [†].
'Lee, too, whose wild flights no discretion could bind,
For the space of four years, was in Bedlam confin'd;
And there to a Scribbler gave that repartee,
Which has oft been recorded, but not yet by me.
Says the Fop to the Bard, in his ill natur'd fun:
"To write like a Madman is easily done."
"Not so," answers Lee, "you are wrong if you please,
But to write like a Fool is the matter of ease [‡]."

To accomplish with success a design such as that which Mr. Thomson has conceived, not only considerable poetic talents are requisite, but a fund of classical learning, nice taste, and a discriminating judgment. We think that, with some limitation, Mr. T. has manifested valid claims to these qualities; and that, on the whole, this portion of his work is executed with a degree of ability which intitles it to public patronage.

'[*] Such is the account of the death of this Poet, transmitted to us in the Eusebian Chronicle.'

'[†] See all the Lives of Tasso.'

'[‡] See the Biographia Dramatica, Article Lee.'

ART.

Art. VIII. *An Introduction to Harmony.* By William Shield. 4to. pp. 125. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

Fronti nulla fides is an axiom which will often apply as well to books as to men. In general, the pretensions of a title-page are inadequately fulfilled in the volume: but, in the present instance, the work accomplishes much more than its modest title promises. *An Introduction to Harmony* seems to refer only to the chords in thorough-bass: but this ingenious author has extended the acceptation of the word Harmony to Melody, Modulation, and Effects. Though the first rudiments of music are here compressed into a small compass, the refinements of the art are detailed at considerable length; and the author's precepts seem not to arise from study and meditation only, but to be the offspring of long practice and experience.

As few extracts from such a performance would be intelligible, unless we could copy the plates, we shall give our readers a view of the contents; pointing out those parts which we think are the best executed, and most likely not only to satisfy musical students, but to please the oldest and most fastidious Professors and Dilettanti.

Crediting his readers for musical *præcognita*, as far as the first elements, Mr. Shield gives neither Gamut, Time-table, nor Characters, in the common way: but, with merely the 8 notes of the diatonic scale, from C to c, he proceeds directly to Intervals, and the common chord and its derivatives: that is, the chord of the 6th, and $^{6}_{4}$. He then explains the difference between a major and minor 3d.—Similar and contrary motion—Forbidden progressions of 5ths and 8ths in similar motion, in the extreme and intermediate parts of a chord—Regular succession of 6ths allowed—Oblique motion—Leading note or sharp 7th of a key—Perfect and imperfect concord—Example of plain counterpoint, or note against note in 4 parts; in which the 2d violin moves in constant 6ths with the base.—The 4 Clefs in general use—Minor 7th and its derivatives—Inversion of Chords explained—A Glee for four Voices, (we believe) by the author of this work—Modern character for the increase and decrease of Sound—Imperfect or false 5th allowed—Perfect 5ths prohibited—Russian Air variously harmonized—Favourite Progression (we should rather say modulation) with old authors, from the chord of A to G natural—Accidental sharps and flats—(we have not been told what the terms sharp and flat mean, nor what are the characters which express them: but these are supposed to have been already known, before a student thinks of thorough-bass, or composition)—Harmony, in chords which accompany the scale or notes, ascending and descending in the bass—Octaves beween the first and second treble, as well as tenor and base, allowed, and sometimes producing agreeable effect—All the notes of the chords to the bass scale figured, in the order in which they lie in the hand.

Thus far we have only had common rudiments, and such as every book of instructions for young musicians must necessarily contain, though they are here given in a more short and concise manner: but now the author proposes a new, and, we think, an admirable scheme for teaching the laws of harmony, or thorough-bass, on treble instruments; such as the violin, oboe, flute, &c. as well as the tenor, violoncello, and bassoon. Here Mr. Shield shall speak for himself:

> 'Gentlemen who perform upon instruments which are incapable of sounding all the notes of a chord at the same instant, may convert harmony into melody, by a method, which, I hope, will prove as useful as it is *novel.* In the following, as well as in the succeeding examples, the regulating note, which bears the chord that the melody is drawn from, is figured with the thorough bass signature. The intervals are counted upwards from *that* note, and the sounds of each chord are performed one after the other.'

Without musical types or plates, we are not able to explain this expedient: but we can assure our readers, who interest themselves in these matters, that it appears very practicable. Let us try a literary notation for a few notes. In the accompaniment of the scale, for instance, if $\overset{\substack{8\\5\\3}}{\text{c}}$ be the key note, and regarded as the bass, its product will be e g c; if d, figured with a $\overset{\substack{6\\4}}{3}$, be regarded as the 2d of the key, its product will be f g b, &c.

	8 5 3	6 4 3	8 6 3	6 5 3	8 5 3	8 6 3	6 5 3	8 5 3
Key note	C e g c	D f g b	E g c e	F a c d	G b d g	A c f a	B d f g	C e g e	&c.
		2d	3d	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th

The minuscules which accompany the capitals may be taken in any part of the instrument, as is most convenient for the hand, or may produce the best melody. After having explained and illustrated this expedient, the author proceeds to the discord of the 9th, its preparations, resolutions, and accompaniments; concluding with the 'terminations of two well-known instrumental compositions, in each of which the 9th is elegantly accompanied with a 3d and 5th.'

' *Preliminary Advertisement to the Second Part.*

' Whoever reads thus far with more patience than memory, should skim over the first part once more before he proceeds to the second, as it is a key to the following harmonical miscellany, which contains extracts from the compositions of those who should have written more, those who should have written less, and those who should not have written at all: the critic will perhaps include me in the latter number; but L'Estrange says, "It is every man's duty to labour in his calling, and not to despond for any miscarriage or disappointment that was not in his power to prevent."

' Compositions are frequently overrated and undervalued by prejudice, therefore it appeared to me to be the most liberal plan, to let every musical illustrative example recommend itself by its own intrinsic merit, and not by the name of its author. Beauties are often found in strains which are seldom heard, and many of the most popular compositions are not entirely free from defects; but I should have betrayed a malignant mind, if I had made my selection to exalt a friend, to depress an enemy, or to diminish the happiness of any contented family by an attempt to injure its supporter in his professional practice.

> "Without a name, reprove and warn,
> Here none are hurt, and all may learn."

' That ear which has been too much cultivated, will be more delighted with the chromatic part of the succeeding pages, than the diatonic; but I hope that no sophistical argument, or astonishing musical difficulty will either confound the understanding, or vitiate the ear of Nature's musician, so as to allure him from captivating simplicity, for I here subjoin a divine composition, as an example, to prove that a few simple notes, properly put together, are capable of expressing the utmost sublimity.'

Here two admirable compositions of sacred music, in four parts, are inserted, with an organ part figured. These two movements are at once simple, solemn, and sublime; and their effects are produced by a very few notes, judiciously and feelingly arranged.

Part II. begins by a notation of chromatic and enharmonic intervals—Difference between a major and minor semitone—The 4th made a discord by the 5th (the index says, erroneously, that ' the 5th is made a discord by the 4th'—a Welshman would exclaim, " what! are there two *teths*, naam o Cot!")

Passages for different instruments, drawn from the harmony of the scales, are admirably calculated for the purpose of teaching thorough-bass to treble instruments: the lowest note of each group, which is the bass, being figured, plainly shews the foundation on which the other notes are built. The minor scale is treated in a similar manner in plain chords, written at full length over a figured bass; as was constantly done by Lampe, if we remember rightly, in his Treatise on Thorough Bass, published about 60 years ago.

Table of common-chords taken three several ways to their fundamental and supposed basses—Modulation by 3ds major and minor, alternately, p. 43. through all the 24 keys, the bass giving its derivatives, and the chord remaining still.

P. 44. The 7th treated in the same manner, the bass moving to the 3d, 5th, and 7th, while the chord is sustained. Then the chord moving and the bass stationary.

P. 45. Minor 7ths with minor 3ds to a moving bass, broken into the several notes of its harmony. The same combination taken four several ways in the treble, to the fundamental bass sustained, modulating through all the keys.

P. 46. Common chords to bass notes which fall a 5th and rise a 4th alternately. The same to bass notes which rise a 5th and fall a 4th.—Chromatic modulation to the same kind of bass, by the chord of the 7th.—Another chromatic descent both by the treble and bass; in which the first note of every bar is accompanied by the extreme sharp 4th, and succeeded by the chord of the imperfect 5th. This example is extremely ingenious, and new.

Lesson of chords major and minor interwoven, for the violin, flute, &c. &c.

We are now arrived at what the author calls his *Repertory* of chords and cadences, arranged in arithmetical order, from the unison to the 13th; prefaced by a just eulogium on Dr. Pepusch's *Treatise on Harmony.*

1, or the unison, explained. Laws for the unison moving to 3ds.

2ds. In two parts. Chord of the $\begin{smallmatrix}5\\3\\2\end{smallmatrix}$. Short strains for different instruments in illustration of the figures used in accompaniments. Dots and double dots explained. Chords of the $\begin{smallmatrix}6\\4\\2\end{smallmatrix}$ major and minor 2. Fragments of harmony.

3ds. Their several uses and combinations. An excellent passage given from a celebrated opera trio: but it would have been much more sightly, if the tenor part had been put in the tenor clef. If sung by a 3d soprano, as engraved, it would cross and disturb the other two parts. Farther on (at p. 71.) we find that Mr. S. himself censures the change of original clefs in which the parts of a composition are written.—Two fragments in 3ds from Handel, and rapid 3ds executed in Westminster Abbey.

4th. Single—with a bass—how prepared and resolved. Beautiful fragment from Pergolesi's *Stabat mater*, in illustration of the use of the 4th, 5th. Its use in melody and harmony. False 5th the nearest (equal) division of the octave on keyed-instruments. Prohibited use of perfect 5ths. Accompanied recitative (p. 73.) to Shakspeare's "briefe, pleasaunt, pithy, and effectual method of teaching the *Gamut*:" an ingenious musical pleasantry, worthy of the words—Use of the sharp 5 and $^{6}_{5}$. A fine fragment from Handel, to exemplify the 5th followed by the 6th.

The author now frequently illustrates rules by fragments of beautiful compositions, generally from well-known works.

6th. Its uses in melody and harmony—$^{6}_{5}$, in which the 5th, being made a discord by the 6th, must be prepared and resolved. In treating of the $^{6}_{5}$, the author has made no mention of this combination to the 4th of the key, preceding a close; in which, according to Rameau (who seems perfectly right) the 6th should be regarded as the discord, and resolved upwards, $\begin{array}{cccc}6&6&5&\\5&4&3&8\\F&g&G&C\end{array}$ This he calls *le double emploi*, the double use of the $^{6}_{5}$.

7th. Its chord broken into melody. How prepared and resolved. Well selected passages. The chord of the extreme flat 7th is called by Rousseau, as properly as any chord can now have that name, the *enharmonic chord*. All the equivocal chords, and imaginary enharmonic quarter-tones, are derived from that chord.

9th. In seven different combinations, p. 80. Curious fragments from various composers, to exhibit their treatment of this discord.

Recapitulation of all the rules in figured scales: an excellent plate, which may well be styled *Guida armonica*. Geminiani's treatise, socalled, containsnot a greater variety of combinations.

Part III.—This last part will be found peculiarly interesting to harmonists who are far advanced in the musical science, by the great number of curious, learned, and beautiful compositions, with which Mr. S. has enriched his work, and (we may say) his subscribers. Indeed the *quotations*, if purchased separately, without the letter-press, would amount to more than the price of the whole work. Mr. S. frequently inserts poetical passages, to amuse and chear the laborious student in the thorny path which he has to travel, in search of science.

P. 84. Simple accompaniments recommended to simple airs, in the manner of Purcell's "Come unto these yellow sands."

85. on *Recitative;* with quotations from one of Mr. Brown's excellent letters on the dramatic music of Italy. 87. A fine piece of recitative, *a tempo*, in curious modulation, and with a very learned accompaniment, by Jomelli, if we mistake not. P. 88. Another *Scena*, still more studied and elaborate.

Of *Cantabile*, vocal and instrumental; with beautiful fragments, chiefly from Haydn. On accompaniment of *bravura*, with examples. An excellent Duet, in which the objection to the performers singing different words at the same time is obviated. Ingenious imitations in four parts, moving in 3ds.

Conrade the good, a charming elegiac air for three voices, judiciously accompanied, by three tenors and a violoncello. If this *terzetto* was set in Italy by an Italian, where did he obtain the English words? and by whom, it may be asked, was he instructed how to place the accents so properly? At p. 95. we have instructions for writing French-Horn parts; and on the next page, where both horns and clarinets are employed, in accompanying a *Quartetto* or glee, the author's information concerning those instruments will be very useful to young composers, as well as young players from a score. P. 98. A *Divertimento* for three equal voices, accompanied by four horns; 2 in C, and 2 in F, ending *con strepito*, with the whole band in full chorus. An air in the Beggar's Opera, elaborately accompanied in 12 parts, in the style of an *aria di cantabile* in a serious opera; which, by a change in the measure, and a few of the notes, it more resembles, than our very antient tune of "the babes in the wood."

Two pleasing English airs. Divisions for practice on several instruments. P. 107. On *Modulation*, with short modulations for the violin.

On the *free Capriccio;* for which some good counsel is given from a German author. The interesting subject of modulation continued in Traits of modulation for short preludes;—chromatic chords for the harp as well as piano forte;—and on p. 111. are given 27 modulations from the keys of C and A natural, not only into relative, but the most remote keys in the musical system.

P. 112. An elaborate prelude for the piano forte: followed by *Arpeggios* for the exercise of the hand on the same instrument. Prelude by Sebastian Bach, made for his son, the admirable Carl. Phil. Eman. Bach.

P. 116. A much admired cadence, composed (we believe) by Fischer, in his brightest days of composition and performance, for a favourite *Quartetto Concertante* of Christian Bach; in which Cramer, Fischer, Mr. Shield himself, and Crosdil, had the solo parts. Its effect will never be forgotten by those who were so happy as to hear it.

The Swiss tune, called the *Rans de Vaches*, is here given in two different ways, with judicious reflections.

A Foul Copy, in *fac simile*, of Dr. Arne's "Soldier tried with War's Alarms;" with remarks—Divisions in triplets—Chord of the diminished or extreme flat 7th, the source of equivocal chords, or modern enharmonic transposed.

Unexpected transitions for the violoncello and viola—Exercise, containing abrupt modulations for the violin or tenor—Musical short-hand, or symbols of iteration. As semibreves, minims, and crotchets, are often divided into smaller proportions, the reader should have been informed, by figures over them, as well as by the following means: , 8 quavers; , 16 semiquavers. 4 quavers, , 8 semiquavers, , 4 semiquavers, &c.

Our musical readers will now perceive that the materials of this work are excellent; selected with good taste, and explained and commented with science and clearness. Arrangement may, perhaps, seem wanting: but the component parts are so miscellaneous, and of such general use, that we do not clearly see how they could be better methodized. The author has given an ample index, page by page; or rather a table of contents (as index implies alphabetic arrangement) which will enable the reader to find any rule, or composition, to which he may wish to turn. With respect to the most material rules for the use of intervals, whether concords or discords, in conjunction, a very commodious method has been adopted by the author, in pursuing all the figures used in thorough-bass, from the unison to the 9th, in numerical order; and by a running title at the top of each page of the *Repertory;* where any one of the integers and its combinations may be found as soon as a word in a Dictionary; beginning at p. 48, and continuing to 81. Within these pages are contained the principal rules of thorough bass and composition, as far as harmony is concerned; which is all that is promised in the title-page. The rest of the work, from p. 82 to the end, will be found replete with curious specimens of composition, and the remarks of an experienced and able professor; who not only tastes and respects the productions of others, but has himself much contributed to the entertainment of the public by his own performance and compositions. He must therefore be allowed to be well-qualified for the work which he has undertaken, both as an author and a critic; and higher authority than ours has long since said,

> "Let those teach others who themselves excel,
> And censure freely, who have written well."

Art. IX. *Serious and candid Observations on that Part of the Bishop of Lincoln's Work,* entitled *Elements of Christian Theology* [*], which contains his Lordship's Exposition of the Seventeenth Article of the Church of England, &c. 8vo. 1s. Parsons, &c. 1800.

This anonymous pamphlet, of 39 pages, is a serious animadversion on the Bishop of Lincoln, for having, in his discussion of the Seventeenth Article, (respecting *Predestination and Election,*) explained away its genuine Calvinistic meaning. The author's 'veneration and affection for the Church of England' prompted him to publish his Letter, which is addressed 'from an old Christian in the country to his friend in London;' and he was the more induced to do this because several modern publications 'assert, boldly and confidently, as well as the learned Bishop, that the Articles of the Church of England are not Calvinistical.'

To this writer, the Bishop's interpretation 'appeared one of the most astonishing instances of the perversion of language, and distortion of the sense of a paragraph, that *he* ever met with;' and he adds that, if it were not for a consideration of the imperfections of the human mind in some of the most distinguished characters, he should 'be at a loss to reconcile it with common sense or common honesty.'—This is harsh language: but at the same time we must own that this *old Christian* appears to us to have so far proved his point, that he has shewn that no other doctrine than that of pure Calvinism is to be found in the Article in question. He calls to his aid the authority of Whitgift, Fletcher, Hutton, and Beveridge:—but he adds:

> 'Without having any regard to the authority of great characters, there are, as I conceive, but two schemes of divinity, however they may be diversified, the one originating from the good pleasure or sovereign will of the Deity; the other taking its rise in the will of man, or in some betterness of character which is supposed to make one man more worthy of the divine favour than another. The one is St. Paul's, of Salvation by grace through faith, and that not of ourselves, it is the gift of God; not of works lest any man should boast. The other, which seems to be the Bishop's, of works, or of him that willeth, and obtains something by his efforts which others have not obtained. Though upon the scheme of works, if the subject be closely pursued, it will appear in the issue, that they who have this betterness of character in the case before supposed, must have had some advantages of nature, education, or connection, arbitrarily given them by the God of providence, which those otherwise disposed did not pos-

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[*] See our last Review.

sess. But waving this, on the two schemes, that of grace and works, turned the dispute between the reformers and the defenders of the popish system. All the venerable Bishops, during the time of Edward VI. and Queen Elizabeth, almost to a man, understood the article as I have explained it, and were for building the whole fabric of man's salvation on the good pleasure of the Deity, and on nothing in the creature.

'Regeneration, justification, and effectual calling, as these are acts of God in time, all of them depend on the doctrine of the 17th article. For, I suppose, the Deity does nothing in time, he did not intend to do from all eternity. I do not conceive that he has any new thoughts on subjects as man has.

'If these Christian blessings are the result of divine grace, or mere benevolence to men, not depending on any exertions or pre-requisites in human characters, then the doctrine of the article must necessarily follow.'

This specimen will give our readers a sufficient idea of the author's manner, and of his faith.

Art. X. *Animadversions on the Elements of Christian Theology*, by the Rev. George Pretyman, D. D. F. R. S. Lord Bishop of Lincoln; in a Series of Letters addressed to his Lordship by William Frend. 8vo. 3s. Ridgeway. 1800.

This is an attack of a nature very different from that of the foregoing Observations. With a keenness of style almost peculiar to himself, Mr. Frend animadverts on various parts of the Bishop of Lincoln's late publication, in a series of *twenty-one* Letters. Of these the first is introductory; and, as it is not very long, we shall give it verbatim.

'On hearing that your Lordship had published an elementary work on theology, my curiosity was excited to discover the progress, which had been made within the last hundred years, in that much neglected science; and to learn, from good authority, what are the present doctrines of the church of England. Your work gratified me in both respects; and I should have contented myself with the pleasure derived from the first perusal, if a singularity in the conclusion had not forcibly attracted my attention, and led me into a farther investigation of your Lordship's principles. You stand forward the decided advocate of truth—the pernicious system which, with shameless effrontery, has been promulgated by two doctors of the church of England, receives no countenance from your lordship—you require of persons who dedicate themselves to the office of teaching, that they should really believe, what, in your lordship's presence, they have subscribed. You do not admit the specious glosses and jesuitical pretences, by which these divines palliate the most notorious frauds, and would make the church of England an asylum for the credulous and the incredulous, the pious and the impious, the active searcher after truth and the rapacious hunter after preferment. I honour you, my

for your decision. May it produce the desired effect on
hren on the bench! May it dissipate a system founded on a
ibuse of talents, and calculated to produce a total neglect of
ty in the clergy, and an entire distrust of them among the

position to these divines, your lordship justly asserts, "that
y should unfeignedly believe the truth of the doctrines con-
the thirty-nine articles*;" and, that "it behoves every one,
offers himself a candidate for holy orders, to peruse carefully
es of the church, and to compare them with the written
iod. If upon mature examination," your lordship adds, "he
iem to be authorised by scripture, he may conscientiously
them; but if, on the contrary, he thinks, that he sees rea-
ent from any of the doctrines asserted in them, no hope of
t or honour, no dread of inconvenience or disappointment
uce him to express his solemn assent to propositions, which,
does not believe†." Such language is worthy of the over-
r church; and your lordship's farther exhortation deserves
rded. "Let it be remembered, that in a business of this
l important nature, no species whatever of evasion, subter-
serve is to be allowed, or can be practised without immi-
er of incurring the wrath of God. The articles are to be
in their plain and obvious sense; and assent is to be given
imply and unequivocally. Thus only can a person offer
the table of the Lord, as his minister, with safety: thus
e expect to receive the divine blessing upon that course of
ich he has solemnly devoted himself‡."

extracts, according entirely with my own sentiments, I
d with great pleasure; and, in the future letters, which I
the honour of addressing to your lordship, my eye will be
r directed to them, that, if any thing should be found in your
ion of the articles to be not consistent with the forms laid
ubscription, I may give your lordship the opportunity of
mination; and your lordship's condescension in declaring,
shall very readily attend to any suggestion or advice, whe-
tes to errour or omission §," induces me to hope, that you
displeased at this intrusion on your time, and interesting
. I must premise only, that it is not in my power to imi-
ordship in referring to and making copious extracts from a
writers: my scanty library does not contain those valuable
which my time was once so agreeably and, I thought,
ployed: your lordship's work, and my old friends Trom-
midt, Griesbach's Greek Testament, and Leusden's He-
, are the only works, to which I shall have recourse, un-
nce I should, in a friend's library, be enabled to cast my
ie of the works quoted in the margin of your Elements of

Of this defect I do not, in this instance, complain very
s every position, in which we agree or differ, must be

. II. p. 566. † Ib. p. 567. ‡ Ib. p. 568.
l. p. xii.

brought to the test of scripture, and cannot be determined by other authority. With great respect I beg leave to subscribe my

' My lord, your lordship's affectionate brother in Christ,

WILLIAM FRE'

In a similar strain, Mr. F. continues from *Alpha* to *Omeg*— In Letter 2, he maintains, against the Bishop, that *dipping* i the only true *baptism*; and consequently that neither *he* nor hi *Lordship* ever was *baptized*!—In Letter 3, he endeavours prove that the necessity of baptism ceased with the apo age.—Letters 4 and 5 treat on *Excommunication*, and the chiefs derived from it.—The subjects of Letter 6 are *He* and *the Abuse of Authority*.—We shall transcribe a passage tive to a clause in the 20th Article of the Church of Engl regarding the power of the Church *to decree rites or cerem* *and authority in controversies of Faith*.

' These words stand in all the copies of the articles now printed authority, and yet it is supposed, that they are a forgery: for, original writing is still extant in Benet college library; and there several printed copies of the articles about the same date, in as well as in the original, these words are not to be found. controversy may be seen at full length in a book entitled, "Pri craft in perfection," to which I beg leave to refer your lordship; there is a gentleman now alive, who, if not engaged in more ant pursuits, could throw additional light upon this extraord transaction.

' Your lordship accounts for the omission in the following "This first clause is not in the MS. copy of the articles in the of Benet college Cambridge, which is thus accounted for: that was left to the college by Archbishop Parker, and was the one by the bishops, &c. when they first met: they afterwards agree add this clause, and another copy including it was signed. former copy remained in the hands of the Archbishop, and was by him to the college; the second copy was deposited in the reg court of the province of Canterbury, and was burnt in the London *." Here are some point-blank assertions, in which possible, that your lordship may be mistaken. The Bishops not have met as you assert; may not have made a second copy; not have signed it, &c. &c. &c. Without any imputation on lordship's veracity I have my doubts on your statement: for lordship lives between two and three hundred years since the tion is supposed to have happened, and you have not referred readers to a single authority in support of this very extrao history. What then am I to write in the margin of your work? simple query. How came the bishop of Lincoln to be so his account of a transaction, which happened between two and centuries ago? Was it by inspiration, by tradition, or by hist evidence? In the next edition of your work I shall hope to be

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' * Vol. II. p. 332.'

'fied on these points, and in the mean time recommend most strenuously to your lordship to weigh in as equal a balance the authority of the early fathers, several of whom were addicted to the use of a figure in speech, which, however current in the days of credulity, is now reprobated in all good company.'

We shall now satisfy ourselves with giving the summary of the remaining Letters, in the author's *table of contents*, prefixed to each of them:

'*Authority*. The famous fires in Alexandria and London—the writer takes a journey—is much abused on the road—finds the early fathers—different ways of travelling—some very strange strange parties galloped over a great number of people.

'*Episcopalians—Presbyterians*. Derivation and meaning of the words church, bishop, presbyter—a long ladder—uninterrupted succession of bishops where—alliance of church and state—alliance of kirk and state—all Christians equally priests—but a public teacher or reader may be useful.

'*The Lord's Supper*. Fables according to the bishop dangerous, deceitful, and blasphemous—the Lord's supper in its origin—how changed—not a supper, but a feast upon a sacrifice.

'*Ditto*. Invasion of the king's prerogative—attempt to restore—objections to the perpetuity of the rite of the Lord's supper—e and abuse of it.

'*The Trinity*. Unchristian disputes on the trinity—Jewish opinions the oneness of God—belief nominal or real—archbishop Secker—ist's widow—Hindoo trinity.

'*Ditto*. Erroneous judgment—singular use of language instanced the Norfolk dialect—did not lead the Jews into error—and [illegible] apology for the sons of Japhet.

Ditto. Search after the trinity in the New Testament—[illegible] ages examined—nine persons in the trinity—trinity not found he bishop in either Old or New Testament.

Jewish Slanders. Jesus not God before he was thirty years old—e himself God afterwards if we believe the Jews—[illegible] made himself God—the Jews put him to death against their law.

The Son of God. Son of God an appellation common to a great por- of the human race—Adam and Jesus in a more appropriate manner of God—Jesus the son of God—but not the son of [illegible].

eginning of Eternity. Eternity of the earth—[illegible] lation of God.

e Holy Spirit. A spirit brooding over matter [illegible]—the holy spirit a thing given—procession of [illegible] holy spirit allowed by the bishop to be a [illegible].

e Three Witnesses. A verse in the English [illegible]—e bishop will continue the examination [illegible].

of being born. Predestination—[illegible]—bishop's babes—the women [illegible]—author's opinion on the [illegible].

resy. Heresy! heresy! heresy!—[illegible] tom—the bishop and the author agree—[illegible] point-blank against them both—bishop's violent language against the church—it is safer for one man to ſteal a horse than for another to look over the hedge.

'*Conclusion.* The bishop and the author convicted—can any one be a member of the church of England—wisdom of the articles for christian communion—conclusion.'

From the contents alone, the reader will be inclined to expect at least some *amusement* from these *half serious, half-jocose* epistles; though he may disapprove the manner and differ from the sentiments of the author.

Art. XI. *Annals of the French Revolution*; or a chronological Account of the principal Events; with a Variety of Anecdotes and Characters hitherto unpublished. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville, Minister of State. Translated by R. C. Dallas, Esq. from the original Manuscript of the Author, which has never been published. 8vo. 4 Vols. pp. about 450 in each. 1l. 10s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

A Supplement to the Annals of the French Revolution, &c. &c.; or Observations upon the critical Remarks of M. Mallet du Pan in his Review of that Work, &c. By the Author of the Annals. 8vo. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

Correspondence between M. Bertrand de Moleville and the Hon. Charles James Fox, upon his Quotation of the Annals of the French Revolution, in the Debate in the House of Commons 3d Feb. 1800. With a Translation, by R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan Hookham. 1800.

Whether we consider the French revolution as a meteor, which, though vivid in its corruscations, blazes only to expire; or as a chaotic mass, of which the particles, however agitated and heterogeneous, must gradually subside, and ultimately constitute a well defined and regular whole;—in whatever light we view this event, its history must continue for ages to be extremely interesting; and both philosophers and politicians will have recourse to it, in illustrating the science of politics, and in superintending the affairs of nations. Yet of actions in which so many millions have been engaged, there will be a variety of reporters; and where the conflict has been maintained with every passion, in its fullest energy, that could inflame the human breast, we cannot expect from either party the calm decisions of impartiality. Whoever at present attempts to delineate this varied picture will throw over it the warm colouring of his own prejudices and passions; he wi contemplate events through a disturbed medium; and a thousand strokes will discover *undè movetur opus.*

As M. Bertrand de Moleville had opportunities of seeing and knowing much relative to the Revolution, his *Annals* will be consulted by the future historian; though he may not uniformly adopt the epithets by which the events are described, nor assign them to the same originating motives. We observe, however, an evident desire of stating things with accuracy; and the author has brought together and preserved many papers, speeches, and anecdotes, which will render his work a valuable book of reference *. It contains forty-five chapters, and includes a period of three years; commencing with the retreat of the Archbishop of Sens in August 1788, when Louis XVI. engaged to convoke the States-General; and concluding with the dissolution of the first National Assembly, on their passing and on the king's accepting the Constitutional Act, in September 1791.

This short period has produced more matter which is calculated to excite the passions of party-men, and to awaken the reflections of speculative minds, than ordinarily occurs in the history of nations in the course of a century.

The French Revolution is here ascribed to *Philosophy*, to the *American War*, and to the *appointment of a Minister born a Republican*, as its primary causes: but one of the events which immediately contributed to excite it and bring it into action, M. Bertrand considers to be the death of Marshal *Biron*, Colonel of the French Guards in Sept. 1788; who was so beloved by his men, that it is supposed that their affection for him would have preserved them, while he lived, from every revolutionary impression and innovation. We are not competent to decide on the force and extent of military attachment. Soldiers will no doubt be greatly influenced by a commander whom they love and esteem: but in preventing popular and revolutionary ferments among them, more, perhaps, is effected by discipline than by affection; and mere regard to a leader is not likely to obstruct the progress of prevalent opinions, when circumstances contribute to agitate and convulse the minds of men.

To the convocation of the States-General, and to that series of events which elevated the *Tiers Etat* into consequence, and in fact annihilated the two other orders by their union with it, we may attribute the more immediate progress of the French Revolution. Either through fear or bad advice, or both, the Monarchy at that critical period was betrayed into measures which it was afterward unable to retrieve, and which led to

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* See also a former publication by this author, Rev. vol. xxiii. N.S. p. 121, and 423.

its complete overthrow. These measures are minutely detailed in the volumes before us; interspersed with such reflections as a writer of M. Bertrand's connections may be supposed to indulge. Considering the variety of ways in which this revolutionary dish has been served up to the public, it will not be expected that we should follow M. Bertrand through the contents of every chapter; nor prolong this article by comments on each dubious fact or opinion: but we shall attend to a few important facts.

In his account of the attack and storming of the Bastile, the author has not mentioned particulars which have been related by other historians: but we cannot undertake to pronounce how far his correctness is to be impeached. The demolition of this prison was certainly accompanied with circumstances of horror and atrocity, which the advocates for strong or despotic governments are warranted in producing as proofs of the fickle and sanguinary temper of the mob. After having stated the cruelty and want of faith which were manifested in the butchery of the Governor, and in the treatment of the soldiers who submitted to the populace on the capture of the Bastile, M. Bertrand thus proceeds:

> ' It was with great difficulty that the French Guards who had taken charge of these prisoners, saved them from the fury of the people, and carried them as far as the *Hotel-de-Ville*. They led them into the Hall where the Electors were holding their sitting. One of those pretended Magistrates, a worthy representative of the cannibals, who from the *Place-de-Greve* were roaring out for fresh victims, was brutal enough to say to these wretched prisoners, the moment he saw them appear, " You have fired upon your fellow-citizens; you deserve to be hanged, and hanged you shall be immediately."—" Ay, ay," echoed a thousand voices, " hang them all; away with all of them to the lantern!" This sentence of death, however, was not executed, being prevented by the interposition of the French Guards, one of whom addressing the Electors said, " These soldiers are our prisoners; we request they may not be taken out of our hands. If our services have been useful to you, now is the time we wish to receive the reward of them, by having our prisoners pardoned." The acclamation of *Pardon! pardon!* repeated by all the French Guards who had escorted them, was also vociferated by that very crowd who the moment before were making the Hall resound with the most sanguinary cries. The History of the French Revolution will furnish many other examples of the extreme rapidity with which the populace pass from the excess of barbarity to mild and humane feelings; they are ever tigers or lambs, according to the impulse given them, and never one or the other by halves; *to do every thing for them and nothing by them* [*], is the counsel that wisdom gives to every Government; to

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[*] This is one of the maxims of La Rochefoucault. *Rev.*

do every thing by them and nothing for them, is the secret of every Revolution.'

The account of the Federation on the 14th of July 1790 concludes with this remark: 'Thus was celebrated this famous festival, the striking solemnity of which will for ever perpetuate, to the disgrace of France, the memory of the falsest oath ever taken; for all who took it have been forsworn, the king only excepted. Alas! he paid dearly for that fatal fidelity!'

In chapter 36, the character of Mirabeau seems to be clearly developed; and, after the account of his death and funeral, in chap. 38, it is thus sketched by the Annalist:

'*Mirabeau* possessed so robust a constitution, such extraordinary strength, that it was very generally suspected that he had been poisoned. But he was opened, in presence of several of the faculty, by his own physician, who was affectionately attached to him, and not the slightest appearance of poison was perceived. For near a month before, his health, which he never took care of, had been much impaired by frequent attacks of the colic, and the disorder that proved fatal was the natural and immediate consequence of a debauch which he had carried to the greatest excess.

'Thus died this man, who was possessed of qualities doubtless very rare, but the most fatal when not the most valuable. He had sufficient energy, sufficient ambition, and more talents than necessary to fill the highest offices with great eminence; in a word, to be a Great Man, if the violence of his passions and his love of money had not always rendered him a contemptible one, and often a rascal. It would be very difficult to select a single period of his life free from errors or crimes. If he had not died so soon, he might, by important services, have repaired a part of the mischief he had done; he might perhaps have saved the Monarchy: but Providence, who sometimes suffers the wicked to triumph and to oppress virtue, very rarely permits the ignominious path of wickedness to lead to that of real glory. The extraordinary honours decreed to *Mirabeau* by the Assembly and the Capital, were but of short duration, for they were granted for criminal services, for a conduct much less deserving praise than contempt and punishment. Had they been the reward of the intentions and of the plan which had occupied his mind for the last three months of his life, they would have been immortal; because they would have been the homage and the recompence of virtue.'

The fourth volume contains a number of curious and interesting particulars relative to the schemes which were devised for liberating the King, to his fatal flight, and to his conduct after his return to Paris. A plan conceived by M. de Montmorin is here given, which he is said to have presented to his Majesty, when ignorant of the King's design of setting out for Montmedy; and which, had it been adopted, would (according to M. Bertrand) have less hazarded either the dignity or the safety of the Monarch, and would have presented a better prospect of effecting a gentle and advantageous counter-revolution.—The plan was this:

'*M. de Montmorin*, who secretly kept up a daily correspondence with the Count *de Mercy*, was to commission him, on the part of the King, to invite the Emperor to form, as soon as possible, a feigned coalition with the Empire, Prussia, Russia, Spain, and the Kings of Naples and Sardinia, to declare, but not make actual war against France.

'This coalition once formed were to publish a manifesto, the chief grounds of which, pointed out in the plan, should be the maintenance of the rights of the Princes who had possessions in France, and the common interest of all the Powers, to stop a revolution, the principles and manœuvres of which tended to nothing less than the subversion of all the Governments of Europe.

'At the precise period in which this manifesto was to be published, the Emperor, the Kings of Prussia, Spain, and Sardinia, were each to put his army in motion, and order it to approach the frontiers of France, by short marches, under the pretence of waiting the assembling the troops of the other Powers, but, in fact, to give the King time to prepare the different measures in the interior, which were to concur in the success of the plan.

'These measures consisted essentially in neglecting nothing to augment the King's popularity, and to undermine that of all the Factious; to endeavour, by every possible means, to influence the Assembly and the Galleries, the Municipality and the Sections, the Jacobin Club and the National Guard, and to support and carry the motions that circumstances should require. A sum of two millions, distributed with judgment, would have been sufficient to secure these points; for, except a very few fanatics, misled by the revolutionary rage t[illegible] of madness, there were hardly any of these pretended pure patriots, who were not to be bought at their full value, that is to say, at a very low price.

'The declaration of so formidable a preparation for war, at a moment when the French army, deprived by emigration of its best officers, was entirely disorganized, must naturally excite a general sentiment of discontent and terror, which it would be easy to turn entirely against the Assembly. The King alone, exempt from all reproach worthy of all confidence, might, by means of negociation, avert the scourge of war with which France should seem threatened, or at least place the country in a situation to repulse the enemy; and this he might effect by going in person to re-establish subordination in the army, there calling upon all the Emigrant Officers to return to him. This wish was to be addressed to his Majesty, not only by a great many Departments, by the Journalists, the Clubs, the groups of the *Palais-Royal*, but also by the Army itself; and their petition being supported in the Assembly by all the members of the *Coté-Droit*, by a considerable party of the *Coté-Gauche*, and by the galleries, could not fail of being favourably received and granted. The King might then have set out without any obstacle for Metz or Valenciennes, according to the position of the hostile armies. On his arrival, his Majesty was to have published a proclamation, enjoining all the Emigrants immediately to return into the kingdom, and commanding the Princes, Officers, and all Gentlemen, able to bear arms, personally to attend the King in the town to be appointed, in order to join with his Majesty in the defence of the State, the whole, under pain of being deemed traitors to their King and Country, and of being prosecuted as such. That these orders might be executed without delay, the Count *d'Artois* was to be informed of the King's plan before-hand, by a confidential person, to be fixed upon by *M. de Montmorin.*

'After these first operations, a new Council was to be formed, and composed of Ministers chosen among persons most distinguished for their knowledge, energy, and monarchical principles. The King, attended by the Marquis *de Bouillé*, was to review his army, shew himself every day to the soldiers, and inspire their former loyalty, by often speaking to them kindly and confidently. At the same time, his Majesty was to negociate with the Emperor, obtain an armistice, summon the Assembly to Metz or Valenciennes, to consult with them upon the demands of the Powers, and concert the conditions of peace.

'The Queen remaining at Paris, was to render herself popular by letters to the Emperor and to the King of Naples, in order to separate them from the coalition, and they were to be written in a manner to produce the most beneficial effect. *M. de Montmorin* was also to remain at Paris, to treat with the principal members of the Assembly, to preserve the means of influence, and to direct them as occasion might require.

'It was not to be presumed that the Assembly, when summoned by the King, would refuse to attend his person; the populace, in that case, would have compelled them to go; and thousands of addresses would have poured in from all parts to demand their dissolution. Previous to their arrival, or to their being superseded by new Deputies, appointed in the same manner as the former ones, that is to say, by the Bailiwick Assemblies, which the King might have convoked for that purpose, in compliance with the numerous petitions that might have been obtained from all the provinces, his Majesty's Council, and that of the Emperor, might have concerted the conditions upon which the Powers were to insist.

'These conditions, amongst which was to be the disarming and disbanding of the National Guard, were to be of such a nature that the King could not subscribe to them without the consent of the Assembly, nor the Assembly without consulting the wishes of their constituents, that is to say, the Bailiwick Assemblies; the convocation of which, loudly demanded by the people, by the army, and by innumerable petitions, would become inevitable.

'These Assemblies, contrived to be convoked on the same day throughout the kingdom, were to be consulted not only respecting the demands of the different Powers, but respecting the plan of a declaration drawn up according to the desires contained in the majority of the instructions to the Deputies, and which was no more than a summary of the ancient Monarchical Government, cleared from all its abuses, and improved on principles the most prudent and the most proper to secure the stability of the French Constitution.

'This declaration, fulfilling all wishes and realizing all hopes, except those of the factious and brigands, could not fail to be every where received with the most unanimous transports of joy. The Bailiwick Assemblies were to direct their Representatives to present the King with the homage of the general gratitude; and vote immediately the taxes necessary for the wants of the State, according to his Majesty's desire.

'Thus would there have been an end to the Assembly, the Revolution, civil commotions, and war with the Powers of Europe. The King, after having settled the conditions of peace with them, was to set off to the capital; there would he arrive in the midst of universal acclamations of joy, love, and happiness, and find, at last, *his good city of Paris*, those good Frenchmen of old times, that good people who idolized their Kings.'

In the next chapter, we are informed that the King had conceived a design for his deliverance different from any that had been proposed to him, and of which his Ministers were ignorant; that, in consequence, Count Alphonse de Durfort was sent on a secret mission; and that the Count d'Artois held a conference with the Emperor at Mantua, where the plan of rescuing the King was decided. M. Bertrand assures us that the following is a faithful extract from this plan:

"The Emperor shall order 35,000 men to march towards the frontiers of Flanders and Hainault, and at the same time the troops of the Circles, to the number of 15,000 men, shall proceed to Alsace. The same number of Swiss shall appear on the frontiers of the Lyonnois and Franche Compté; the King of Sardinia upon that of Dauphiné with 15,000 men. Spain has already assembled 12,000 men in Catalonia, and will raise them to 20,000 troops, to threaten the southern provinces. These different armies will form a mass of about 100,000 men, which shall march in five columns to the several frontiers bordering on the different States. To these armies shall be joined the regiments remaining loyal, the armed volunteers who may be relied on, and all the malcontents of the provinces.

"The Emperor is assured of the good disposition of the King of Prussia; and his Imperial Majesty has himself undertaken the direct correspondence with the Court of Berlin. The King of England as Elector of Hanover also desires to enter into the coalition, which must be kept a profound secret till the instant of the explosion: for which reason care must be taken to prevent any partial insurrection in the Interior.

"All being thus arranged for the end of July, the declaration of the House of Bourbon shall appear: it shall be signed by the King of Spain, the King of Naples, the Infant of Parma, and the Princes of the Blood that are at liberty. The Manifesto of the Powers engaged in the coalition shall appear immediately after.

"Although the Emperor is the soul and leader of the enterprise, it would most probably place the Queen in a perilous situation if he should appear as the prime mover; for this plan would be certainly attributed to the House of Austria, and the Assembly will use their utmost endeavours to render it odious to the people.

"The Emperor is going to write to the King of Spain to hasten his preparations, and to exhort him to sign without delay the declaration of the House of Bourbon. The King and Queen of Naples, who are acquainted with it, only wait the signature of Spain to affix theirs.

"The intentions of the King of Sardinia are excellent: he only waits the Emperor's signal. The Diet of Ratisbon, who have received the decree for a commission, are about to take their last resolutions.

"The neutrality of England may be relied upon.

"Every thing being thus concerted with the Powers, this plan ought to be considered as settled; and care should be taken that it is not thwarted by jarring ideas. Their Majesties should carefully avoid dividing their confidence, and letting many into the secret; having already experienced that it only hurts, retards, and embarasses.

"The Parliaments are necessary for the re-establishment of forms; consequently a continual correspondence must be kept up with several Members of the Supreme Courts, to be able to reassemble them easily when the time comes.

"Though hitherto it had been wished that their Majesties might themselves procure their liberty, the present situation of affairs makes it necessary to entreat them earnestly to drop the idea. Their position is very different from that in which they stood previous to the 18th of April, before the King had been compelled to go to the Assembly, and to cause the letter to be written to the Ambassadors. The only object that ought to take up their Majesties' attention, is to employ every possible means to increase their popularity, to take advantage of it when the time should come, and so that the people, alarmed at the approach of the foreign armies, should find their safety only in the King's mediation, and their submission to his Majesty's authority. This is the Emperor's opinion. He depends solely on this plan of conduct for the success of the measures which he has adopted, and particularly requests that every other may be given up. What might happen to their Majesties, if in their flight they should not be able to escape a barbarous vigilance, makes him shudder with horror. His Imperial Majesty thinks that their Majesties' surest course is the movement of the armies of the allied Powers, preceded by threatening manifestos."

We have stated these particulars, that the reader may judge what reason the Annalist had for being offended with Mr. Fox, for his quotation in the House of Commons; concerning which we shall speak farther at the close of this article.

It is evident that the King and the National Assembly placed no confidence in each other; and, as the fear was mutual, so also was the duplicity. M. Bertrand very candidly acknowleges that the King was insincere in the declaration which he made on his return to Paris, after his flight. 'Neither (observes he) the profound veneration which I feel for the virtues of Louis XVI. nor the religious respect with which his misfortunes have veiled his errors, must tempt me to conceal that his faithful servants, the true friends of his glory and of his dignity, read with extreme sorrow in his declarations some passages, the sincerity of which it was impossible not to suspect. The mouths of kings should be at all times, and in all circumstances, the purest organs of truth and good faith.'—To this insincerity and want of firmness, the unfortunate Louis XVI. owed his misery. Had he been more open and fearless, he might possibly have preserved his life, and brought the Revolution within proper bounds:—but, after the horrors which have ensued, it is vain to speculate on possibilities.

A picture of the Revolution, and of the state of the different parties, while the King was deliberating on the acceptance of the Constitutional Act, is given in the following passage:

'The King's arrest formed a new æra in the Revolution, which may be regarded as the epocha of the disorganization of all the parties, one only excepted, which reaped an advantage from the fall of the others. The Jacobins having endeavoured in vain to bring the King to a trial, and proclaim France a Republic, turned upon the Constitutionalists, who opposed it, drove them from their post and took possession of it themselves. *Brissot*, who was then the soul of this club, and the chief of the secret committee, who directed its operations, judged very rightly that the Jacobins could not overturn this weak Constitution by any other means than by adopting it; and that it was by declaring themselves its guardians, they might discredit its authors, and succeed in destroying the remainder of Royalty, which the latter had left defenceless.

'The leaders of the Constitutional Party seeing themselves thus attacked, and in danger of being soon supplanted by the most ferocious Revolutionists, divided into two sects; one of them, hoping to retain the favour of the populace, preserved the appearance and language of the Jacobins, who, nevertheless, denounced them as traitors; the other party, still more odious to them, secretly attached themselves to the King, without adopting or proposing any measure to rescue him from danger.

'*M. de la Fayette*, immoveable in his respect for the rights of men, and in his confidence in the constitutional attachment of the Parisian National Guard, thought himself in a condition to triumph over the Republicans and what he called the intriguers of his party.

'The King's arrest was also followed by a division of the Royal Party. Some were for defending his cause to the last, others thought they should take no further part in the determinations of the Assembly; but this difference of opinion had produced no contest or bitterness in the *Coté-Droit*; for on all important questions, that upon the two Chambers excepted, the *Coté-Droit* had been always unanimous, so impossible was it for the honest partisans of a mild Monarchy, as well as those of an absolute one, to support the principles and revolutionary measures of the majority of the Assembly; but even this very agreement of the Royal Party as to the fundamental basis of the Monarchical Government produced no other effect on the multitude, than that of marking them all as the partisans of despotism, while their disagreement as to the system, left to none of their sub-divisions the consistency or force of a party. Thus, all disappeared, all sunk, before the sanguinary cohort of the Jacobins, who were already fabricating in their Clubs, the catastrophes of the 10th of August, the 2d of September, &c. &c. Their determinations each day acquired a greater degree of violence—to their war-cry *The Constitution or Death*, they had added the word *Equality*. To familiarise the people's minds to the ideas of hatred and vengeance, they confounded, and pointed out all their adversaries, under the denomination of *Enemies to Liberty and Equality*. At the same time they supported in the National Assembly every motion made by the members of the *Coté-Droit*, tending to its dissolution, because they were well assured that their successors would soon annihilate the vain phantom of Royalty which stood in their way.

'The Constitutionalists dispirited, found themselves no longer able to hold the reins of the Revolution.

'The *pure Royalists*[*], deceived by the hopes of a powerful coalition in favour of *Louis XVI.* looked forward to the dissolution of the Assembly, and very rarely attended the sittings. Several of them were even preparing to set off for Coblentz, should the King accept the Constitution.

'The *less pure* Royalists, denominated *Monarchiens*[†] and *Monarchistes*[‡], were disgusted at the active part they had taken, and viewed in the dissolution of the Assembly, a period to the insults and menaces which they were every day obliged to undergo. One alone among them highly distinguished for his good sense and talents, *M. de Clermont-Tonnerre*, foreseeing that the second Assembly would be still wore than the first, was willing to prolong the sessions of the present Assembly, in order to superintend the trial of the new system which they had established, and to make all the reforms which experience might shew to be necessary. He spoke of it to *Barnave* and to *Chapelier*, whom he thought to find disposed to support the motion which he proposed to make to that effect; but they advised him against it. "We are worn out," said they, "we shall be driven away as well as you and your party, if we do not go of our own accord. It is only in our Departments, and by occupying places under the Government, that we can henceforth do any good." These Constitutionalists, as presumptuous as guilty, still conceived

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'[*] Those who wished for the ancient Monarchy and ancient system.'

'[†] Those who wished for the New Constitutional Monarchy, with some modifications in the Constitution.'

'[‡] Those who wished for a Monarchical Government of any kind, solidly established.'

themselves to be persons of importance. Odious to all parties, despised by every honest man, and authors of all the calamities which then desolated France, and of those too which the new laws would introduce, how could they conceal from themselves not only that they were no longer good for aught, but that the general indignation would pursue them to the obscurest retreats, regardless of their barren remorse?'

These Annals do not include the *Private Memoirs*, published by M. Bertrand in the year 1797, (see note at p. 167 of this article,) but bring the history of the Revolution to the period at which those Private Memoirs commence.

Though M. Bertrand has traversed a field in which it was much easier to err than uniformly to hold the right path, he is extremely alive to every remark which tends to impeach the extent or the accuracy of his survey. The late M. Mallet du Pan differed in opinion with the Annalist, in his notice of this work in the British Mercury; and some strictures in reply are now offered by M. Bertrand as a Supplement. In some particulars, the former may have been wrong: but in others, the present writer,—as in answer to an observation in the Annals, respecting an intimate connection between the Abbé Sieyes and the Duke of Orleans,—rather replies to than confutes him. M. Mallet du Pan said; "*Whoever has the slightest knowlege of the character, genius, and principles of the Abbé Sieyes, must smile at his supposed connection with any prince; and not a single proof has been advanced in support of the stories of that intimacy, which Sieyes has always disavowed.*" To this remark M. Bertrand, with more acrimony than judgment, thus rejoins: 'It is not easy at present to smile at the mention of the Abbé Sieyes. Villains and regicides excite only horror, and their disavowals can never weaken the evidence of their crimes. What therefore M. Bertrand has related (Vol. I. Chap. IX.) respecting the connection of the Abbé Sieyes with the Duke of Orleans retains its full force. Consequently it appears,' &c.—There is no *consequence* in this argumentation; nor is this the mode of writing history which is likely to gain the faith and confidence of impartial readers.

Mr. Fox having asserted, on the evidence of the annalist, that Louis XVI. and his confidential advisers had entered into negotiations with foreign powers, to dictate by force of arms to France; M. Bertrand addressed a letter to that gentleman, to induce him to retract a declaration which he deems injurious to the memory of this unfortunate monarch, and unjustified by the Annals. The evidence for this assertion we have extracted from the first and second chapters in Vol. IV.; and Mr. Fox, notwithstanding the remonstrance of the author, does not allow himself to be materially inaccurate. The general fact, for which he quoted the passage, is clearly made out. It is not easy to mark the difference between a *feigned* coalition, which is to bring the armies of different powers into the field to act in concert, and a *real* coalition. The aggregate of M. Bertrand's narrative proves that the King felt himself a prisoner at Paris, without power; and that his whole mind was employed, with his ministers, in devising plans for his deliverance, and for his reinstatement in the complete functions of royalty. Foreign states were invited to lend him their assistance, and the plan of invading France unhappily obtained their ready concurrence.

Art. XII. *An Appendix to Mr. Frend's Algebra,* Part I. By Francis Maseres, Esq. F. R. S. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons.

This Appendix to the first part of Mr. Frend's work (which was mentioned in our 22d vol. N. S. p. 440.) contains a most accurate and complete investigation of Cardan's rule, together with the solution of Cubic Equations included under the Irreducible Case.

The commencement of the volume is employed by the solution of the equation $x^3+bx=c$, which can in all cases be solved by Cardan's rule. That it is always possible to solve equations of this form, Baron Maseres shews from the nature of the assumption ($x=g-b$). The three expressions for the root of the equation are deduced; and it is then shewn, by a synthetic demonstration, that each expression is the root of the equation $x^3+bx=c$. As the Equation $x^3-bx=c$ cannot always be solved by Cardan's rule, Baron Maseres shews what are the limitations which bound the possibility of the solution, and what is the cause of such limitations. When c is greater than $\frac{2b^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3^{\frac{3}{2}}}$, it is possible to divide a quantity (x) into two unequal parts ($v+z$) of such magnitudes, that their rectangle or product shall be equal to $\frac{b}{3}$. After the analytical demonstration, the synthetic is given.

In p. 248. l. 18. Art. xxi. the author says

'I do not remember to have seen these substitutions, or synthetick demonstrations of the truth of the expressions given by the foregoing rule of Cardan for the root of the cubick equation $x^3-bx=c$, nor the former substitutions, or synthetick demonstrations of the truth of the three former expressions given by the first rule of Cardan for the root of the cubick equation $x^3+bx=c$, in any former book of Algebra.'

The restrictions for the solution of the equation $x^3-bx=c$, and the necessity of such restrictions from the very nature of the assumptions and substitutions, have been determined in a memoir of the Petersburgh Acts, and by M. D'Alembert. The synthetic demonstration, or the method of finding the equation from the given resolution, has been performed by Dr. Waring in his 29th Problem (p. 163.) "*Datâ resolutiône, æquationem invenire.*" The Doctor, however, from the resolution $x=\sqrt[3]{-\frac{b}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{b^2}{4}+\frac{a^3}{27}}}+\sqrt[3]{-\frac{b}{2}-\sqrt{\frac{b^2}{4}+\frac{a^3}{27}}}$, arrives at an equation of nine dimensions, of this form; $x^9+3bx^6+(3b^2+a^3)x^3+b=o$; of which the cubic equations $x^3+ax+b=o$, $x^3-\frac{1+\sqrt{-3}}{2}ax+b=o$. $x^3-\frac{1-\sqrt{-3}}{2}ax+b=o$ will be divisors; and thence he observes that the resolution $x=\sqrt[3]{-\frac{b}{2}}+$ &c. ought rather to be called the resolution of an equation of nine than of three dimensions.

In a note, p. 254, Baron Maseres indulges himself in undignified invectives against Newton, Maclaurin, Saunderson, and Clairaut, for writing so obscurely on the subject of Cardan's rule. It is to be confessed that these authors have not given so full and accurate an investigation of that rule as we find in this book: but they scarcely merit such severity of censure as is here passed on them. In the praise bestowed on the *Horologium oscillatorium* of Huygens we concur: but far be it from us to wish that Newton had employed four years of his life in writing his Principia over again. Newton is elevated above mathematicians to the height which he occupies, by his invention. His march from truth to truth was rapid and continual. Ought he to have consumed his time in making the road, by which he advanced, easy and pleasant to those who followed him?

At p. 257, after having stated under what circumstances the irreducible case happens, the author proceeds to the demonstration of cubic equations of the form $x^3-bx=c$, in which c is less than $\frac{26^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3^{\frac{1}{2}}}$. These equations are resolved by Mr. Raphson's method of approximation; which, Baron Maseres well observes, is the most convenient *practical* method of solving

ing them. Those, however, who are fond of scientific demonstrations, object to this method, because it is merely tentative, and because the solution has no connection with the original equation. By trial, 2 may be found to be the root of $x^3 - 2x - 4$: but there is no connection between 2 and the form $x^3 - 2x - 4$; whereas, from Cardan's solution, $\sqrt[3]{2+\sqrt{\frac{100}{27}}} + \sqrt[3]{2-\sqrt{\frac{100}{27}}}$, we may re-ascend to the original form $x^3 - 2x - 4$.

P. 293, the Baron considers the case in which the equation $bx - x^3 = c$ has two roots. All his processes are conducted with the greatest accuracy and circumspection; and the quantity is always considered as a real positive quantity.

The solution of the biquadratic $x^4 - bx^2 + box = 3b$, by the method of Lewis Ferrari, is given at p. 412. This solution is very intelligible and complete: but it is to be remarked that the principle of it is precisely the same as that of Waring. In Ferrari's method, let the biquadratic be $x^4 = qx^2 + rx + s$; add $nx^2 + n^2$ to each side; then $x^4 + 2nx^2 + n^2 = (2n+q)\,x^2 + rx + s + n^2$: but, in order that $(2n+q)\,x^2 + rx + (s+n^2)$ may be a complete square, $4 \times (2n+q) \times (s+n^2)$ must equal r^2: whence sults the cubic $8n^3 + 4qn^2 + 8sn + 4sq - r^2 = 0$; which, solved, ives n.

In Waring's solution, $x^4 + 2px^3 = qx^2 + rx + s$: let (p^2+2n) $^2 + 2pnx + n^2$ be added to each side; then $x^4 + 2px^3 + (p^2 + n)\,x^2 + 2pnx + n^2 = (p^2 + 2n + q)\,x^2 + (2pn + r)\,x + (s + n^2) = 0$. Let $4 \times (s+n^2)\,(p^2+2n+q) = (2pn+r)^2$: then results the bic equation $8n^3 + 4qn^2 + (8s - 4rp)\,n + 4qs + 4p^2s - r^2 = 0$: hence n &c.

The step which Dr. Waring made, in extending the solution equations that have all their terms complete, was extremely y; since the real and great difficulty, the invention of the inciple of solution, had been surmounted by Ferrari.—The ethods of Waring and Ferrari are, according to Baron aseres, more tedious and incommodious than the method of aphson by approximation. We have already said, however, t a distinction is to be made between a solution by a tentative ethod, and a solution by a strict and scientific method. Mathematicians, who are fond of speculative truth, do not much ard practical commodiousness.

In the same volume with this Appendix, is bound up a small t that has already appeared before the public*, intitled

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* Indeed most of the contents of the present volume are to be nd in the prior works of B. Maseres; in his *Scriptores Logarithmici,*

"Observations on Mr. Raphson's method of resolving affected Equations of all degrees by Approximation."—In this tract, and in the Appendix, the Baron renews his old complaints against 'the nonsense and absurdity' of negative quantities; which quantities, he says, 'he and Mr. Frend have expunged from their works.' This decisive tone and language, we think, can only be justified by a strict proof of the absurdity and inutility of negative quantities; a proof for which we seek in vain in the works of these two authors; since we do not deem the question decided because we cannot conceive an abstract negative quantity, or because a mathematician has defined them to be "*nihilo minores*," or because problems can be solved without their aid. We reserve what we have farther to say on this subject, for the consideration of the second part of Frend's Algebra, in the subsequent Article.

ART. XIII. *The Principles of Algebra:* or the true Theory Equations established by Mathematical Demonstration. Part II By William Frend. 8vo. pp. 119. 3s. Boards. Robins 1799.

IN this second part, Mr. Frend classes equations according the number of their unknown terms: $x^{m+n}-ax^{n}=k$ be an equation of the second, and $x^{m}-ax^{n}+bx^{r}=k$ of the thi class. He observes that one general rule pervades all equatio namely that none in any class can have more roots than it h unknown terms.—It must be recollected that, according Mr. Frend and Baron Maseres, negative and impossible qu tities are degraded from the duties and the dignity of roots.

In chapter II. equations of the first class are solved by the of logarithms, and approximation.—In chapter III. the aut proceeds to the consideration of equations of the second cl and proves that the equation $ax^{n}-x^{m+n}=k$ may have t roots, in a manner similar to that of Baron Maseres. (Tre on negative sign, Appendix, &c.)

Mr. Frend (we know not from what motive) has chan the term co-efficient for co-part; and he demonstrates relation between the co-part and roots of equations th Let equation be $ax-x^{2}=k$; roots, c and d; then, $ac-c^{2}$ $=ad-d^{2}$ $\therefore$ $a=\frac{c^{2}-d^{2}}{c-d}=c+d$, and $\therefore$ $ac-c^{2}=d\times c=$ Again; let $x^{3}+bx-ax^{2}=k$, and roots be d, e, f;

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mici, and Dissertation on the use of the negative sign, Mem Philosophical Transactions, &c.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{then, } & d^3+bd-ad^2=k\\
& e^3+be-ae^2=k\\
& f^3+bf-af^2=k\\
\therefore\ & d^3-e^3+b(d-e)=a(d^2-e^2)\\
\therefore\ & d^2+ed+e^2+b=a\times\overline{d+e}\\
\text{and } & d^2+fd+f^2+b=a\times\overline{d+f}\\
\therefore\ & d\times\overline{e-f}+\overline{e^2-f^2}=a\times\overline{e-f}\\
\therefore\ & a=d+e+f.
\end{aligned}
$$

In the same manner, b may be shewn $=de+df+ef$ and $k=def$. This certainly is a *direct*, but it is not a *new* demonstration. In page 220 of the *Meditationes Algebraicæ*, (Ed. 3tia) is this problem:

" *Datâ æquatione* ($x^n-px^{n-1}+qx^{n-2}=0$) *&c. unam incognitam quantitatem* (x) *habente, invenire ejus coefficientium* ($p, q, r,$ *&c.*) *constitutionem.*

" *Sint* $\alpha, \beta, \gamma,$ *&c. radices datæ æquationis, quarum numerus sit n; quibus pro suo valore* (x) *substitutis, resultant equationes*

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\alpha^n-p\alpha^{n-1}+q\alpha^{n-2}-\&c.\\
&\beta^n-p\beta^{n-1}+q\beta^{n-2}-\&c.\\
&\gamma^n-p\gamma^{n-1}+q\gamma^{n-2}-\&c.
\end{aligned}
$$

" *Reducantur hæ æquationes in unam, ita ut exterminentur omnes coefficientes præter unam* (p), *cujus constitutio quæritur; et invenietur* $p=\alpha+\beta+\gamma+\&c.$ *et eodem modo* $q=\alpha\beta+\alpha\gamma+\beta\gamma$ &c.; $r=\alpha\beta\gamma+\&c.$ *et ita deinceps.*"

This is precisely what Mr. F. has done, and in the same manner.

In the preface, the author speaks of having discovered the limiting equation by a simple principle, which he says admits of great extension. The principle is this: let a and b be certain numbers; z and y variable numbers; then, if $a=b+Az-$ $y+Cz^2-Dy^2$ &c. The difference between the variable terms must either be equal to a given number or to nothing: now this difference cannot equal a given number (says the author) in my demonstrations, for both z and y may be taken less than any assignable number.' Let us observe the nature and efficacy of the principle, in its application to an individual case.

Let the equation be $ax-x^3$, and let m be the number which, substituted for x, gives $ax-x^3=G$ the greatest possible: then, if x be made $=m+z$, or $m-y$, the product will be less, and $=$ some quantity k.

Substitute for x, in equation $ax-x^3=k$, $m+z$: likewise $m-y$; and equate the two expressions that arise from such substitutions: then there results

$$a=3m^2+3m\times\overline{z-y}+z^2-zy+y^2.$$

But, says the author, $3m \times \overline{z-y}+z^2-zy+y^2$ must $=o$;

$$\therefore\ a=3m^2 \text{ and } m=\sqrt{\frac{a}{3}}.$$

Now $3m \times \overline{z-y}+z^2-zy+y^2$ must $=o$, according to Mr, F.; because, by decreasing z and y, the quantity may be made less that any assignable number. We confess that, to us, this principle does not appear very evident. If $ax-x^3=k$, z and y cannot each be taken at pleasure: but z being assumed, y is necessarily determined from the equation ($a=3m^2 \times \overline{z-y}+z^2-zy+y^2$). It is granted that, if in any equation $ax^m-x^{m+n}=k$ where k is less than the quantity that results from putting m for x, x may be made $=m+z$, and z may be taken less than any assignable number: but it is no evident consequence that y is less than any assignable quantity. We do not say that y is *not* less, only that it is *not demonstrated* to be so. What the author advances may be truth, but it does not appear to us to be science.

In our opinion, if Mr. Frend's principle be thoroughly examined and firmly established, it will be found to be identical with the one used for the determination of the maxima and minima of quantities; and the problems for finding the greatest value of x in the equations $ax-x^3=k$, $ax^m-x^{m+n}=k$ &c. are problems which have been long since solved by the aid of the fluxionary and differential calculus. The objection which Mr. F. makes against the solution of these problems, that the foreign and unnecessary principle of velocity has been there introduced, is an objection properly against the *fluxionary* method: but the maxima and minima of quantities have been determined on purely algebraical principles. To state once more our opinion, we think that the principle of Mr. F. as it now stands is by no means simple nor evident; and that, if it be more fully considered and verified, it will not differ materially from the principle on which the maxima of quantities have heretofore been established.

In page 69, Mr. Frend applies his principle to discover the limits of the roots of equations; for instance, in the equation $ax^2+bx-x^3=k$, he finds the value of x that makes the quantity ax^2+bx-x^3 the greatest possible, namely $\frac{a+\sqrt{a^2+3b}}{3}$: this value, it is known, is a limit of x in the original equation, determined by solving the limiting equation $3x^2-2ax-b=o$, according to the common processes of algebra.

The author of the present treatise has undoubtedly thought for himself; and his work deserves notice for its freedom from absurd notions and indirect demonstrations, and for the practical information relative to the solution of equations. It is not, we trust, agreeable either to our principles or our practice, "to transmit the sacred depositum of error from age to age:" we wish neither to defend inveterate prejudices, nor to palliate absurd misconceptions; yet we cannot find sufficient reason for that acrimonious and irreverent censure which has lately been poured forth on the inventors and abettors of the old system of algebra. We disregard contemptuous terms; they properly are only to be used against those who obstinately persevere in error after conviction. From a mathematician, formal proof is to be expected; he is required not to *inveigh* against the *nonsense* of negative quantities, but manifestly to expose their inutility. He is to be admonished that, instead of a flippant comparison of the doctrine of impossible quantities with the "stupid dreams of Athanasius," he would have done better if he had shewn that it is unintelligible and useless in expediting mathematical reasoning.

It is easy to affix an absurd notion to a thing, and then to ridicule it: but, unless ridicule be justly applied, it is no test of truth. The misconceptions of one or two authors, concerning negative quantities, constitute no just and sufficient reason for their exclusion; and many distinguished mathematicians have persevered in using negative quantities in their calculations, after they had animadverted on the absurd notions formed of them. The true idea of negative quantities, and the exposure of the unintelligible definition given of them by some authors, are not of late date; and cannot be attributed to that flood of light which has been poured on modern times, to dissipate the clouds that yet hang over human science.

"*Il n'y a donc point réellement et absolument de quantité negative isoleé: 3, pris abstraitement, ne presente aucune idée.*"—Encyclopedie, year 1751.

"*Qu'il me soit donc permis de rémarquer, combien fausse l'idée qu'on donne quelquefois des quantités negatives, en disant que ces quantités sont au dessous de zero. Independamment de l'obscurité de cette idée envisagée metaphysiquement,*" &c.—Opuscules D'Alembert, 1761.

"*C'est le calcul, il faut l'avouer, qui a induit certains Geometres en erreur sur la valeur des quantités negatives. Ils ont remarqué que* $a < 2a$ *donnoit* $a - 2a < 0$, *ou* $-a < 0$: *d'ou ils ont conclu que les quantités negatives etoient au dessous de zero. Mais ils ne seroient pas tombes dans cette erreur, s'ils avoient consideré qu'une quantité au dessous de zero est une chose absurde, et que* $-a < 0$ *ne signifie autre chose que* $B - a < B$, *B etant une quantité quelconque sousentendue, et plus grande que* a. *La simplicité et la commodité des expressions Algebraiques, consiste a representer à la fois, et comme en racourci, un grand nombre d'idees; mais ce laconisme d'expression, si on peut parler ainsi en impose quelquefois à certains esprits, et leur donne des notions fausses.*" Id.

We have never tortured our minds to conceive the idea of abstract negative or impossible quantities, but have considered them as means used to abridge and facilitate calculation. Until a clear and decisive proof of their inutility be exhibited, we must follow the antient system of things: still talking the same jargon which Newton and Des Cartes have babbled; and adhering to the faith of that doctrine which has verified the law of gravitation in every phænomenon of the universe.

We have said thus much, because we are of opinion that Mr. Frend has been more bold and vehement in his assertions, than his proofs warrant him to be; and because he has abused a most excellent privilege, the freedom of inquiry. The concluding sentence of his book* contains a sublime thought: but, recollecting some of the events of the author's life, we fancy that we see it contaminated with a small mixture of human infirmity.

ART XIV. *The Hop Garden*, a didactic Poem. By Luke Booker, LL. D. 8vo. pp. 118. 3s. sewed. Rivingtons. 1799.

It seems rather extraordinary that Dr. Booker should not have known that Mr. Christopher Smart, so memorable for his genius and his misfortunes, had written a poem on the same subject with that which is treated in the work before us; but we conclude that he was unacquainted with that production, because he has not mentioned it; as we doubt not, from the liberality of his sentiments, that he would have been happy in giving it that applause which it so well deserves. Though, however, these two poets have written on the same subject, and both in blank verse, the plan and structure of the poems are so different, that each may be considered as an original. Smart is lively, easy, and poetical; his imagery is bright; and his descriptions are animated and appropriate. Dr. Booker is in many parts stiff and laboured; and he indulges perhaps too much in his turn for moral sentiment, and his love of digression: yet it must be acknowleged that his digressions are frequently beautiful, and that his moral and religious sentiments are such as every good man must approve. Indeed, when interwoven in some pathetic tale or interesting narrative, they will not only be read with pleasure, but will leave impressions on the mind that are highly favourable to our improvement in

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[*] 'How great then must be that Being to whom the thoughts of all these orders of Beings are known at a moment's glance; and how insignificant in the eye of reason are those nations which lay down rules for thought, and persecute for opinions.'

virtue

rtue and real wisdom. Of this sort, we conceive the follow- ig description of the miserable state of deserted infants, be- re the erection of the Foundling Hospital, to be a specimen hich reflects honour on the poetical powers and real feeling f the author:

'Thou who, solicitous of Nature's boon,
Wou'dst see thy Garden thrive with clusters thick
Wreathing thy poles—inclining let it slope
To meet the southern or the western ray.
As thou desir'st kind Plenty's gladd'ning smile,
From the destructive breath of Boreas rude,
And Eurus keen let rising hill protect,
Or sylvan screen impervious to their blasts;
Lest they, at vernal-tide, the tender Hop—
All shelterless—with fatal force assail,—
Arrest its flowing juices, and destroy
Each infant plant.——So, till benignly rose
That sheltering Dome for infant-life expos'd,—
CORAM its gen'rous Founder,—many a child
Perish'd untimely in the bitter blast,—
Its wailings utter'd to the pitiless winds,
And drown'd by their uproar,—less pitying she,
Its heartless Mother! or whose heart—as stone
Callous and dead—no agonizing throbs
Felt for the little victim, fruit of Shame!
—Drench'd with dark mid-night's show'rs, to the cold rock
It clings—for want of shelter in that breast
Where late it helpless hung, and vital streams
Imbib'd, unwelcom'd. Now, discarded thence,
It, famish'd, dies!—and, stiff with livid death,
Some aged shepherd, in his morning round,
Shock'd—finds it, eyeless! rav'nous birds the while
Hov'ring indignant, clam'rous at the loss
Of their just-tasted prey.——Mark yon pale Wretch,
Dishonour'd by a Villain feigning love,
And plighting vows of constancy and truth:
—With troubled step she walks,—now stops, and turns,
As if some horrid purpose, unfulfill'd,
Reclaim'd her feet: now walks, now turns again,
And wrings her hands, and tears her flowing hair:
Then onward wildly flies—aghast with dread,
Shunning each passenger. Her live-born babe
Expos'd, like Israel's infant Seer, is left
Fast by the margin of Thames' swelling tide,
Whose waves, anon, will reach its rushy bed
To whelm it in the deep!——Ah! no: its cries
Are heard; and HE whose eye the thickest shades
Of night pervades, guides down the shelving bank
One of Augusta's pitying sons, who thence
Bears it from danger, and the FOUNDLING-HOUSE

Welcomes it soon. There England's King and Queen,
Her Nobles, Merchants, and accomplish'd Fair
Become its Parents, its Protectors kind;
Till, by their Bounty bless'd, he issues forth,
Himself a Blessing to the social world.'

The subject of this poem is briefly but comprehensively stated in the first three lines:

'The Spiral Hop, high mantling, how to train
—No common care to Britain's gen'rous sons,
Lovers of "nut brown ale"—sing, fav'ring Muse!'

In two books, the author pursues this design; pointing out the aspect and situation of the Hop Garden; what soil is most congenial to the Hop; the management of different kinds of soil; seasons for planting; time and method of planting; directions concerning Poles; troops of Hop-pickers delineated; the vintage described, &c. &c.—A 'Sequel Poem' treats, 'for the most part, of the liquor in which Hops are a constituent ingredient;' branching out into a variety of illustrative remarks and descriptions; and concluding with an exhortation to Sobriety.

We shall copy the description of a day's labour during the vintage:

'Hail, joyous Season! with auspicious smile
Approaching, lovely. 'Mid the flutt'ring vines
Morn's light-wing'd breezes, whisp'ring softly, play,
And shake the dew-drops from the pendant flow'rs.
See, see, unsummon'd, blithesome now advance
The willing Pickers to the Garden's bound;
Where, plac'd to meet the moisture-drinking ray,
They plant the Crib capacious. Soon commence
Their various tasks. All emulous to please,—
Some, loos'ning to and fro the wreathed poles,
Extract them from Earth's bosom, and them bear
To *others*, station'd at the ready crib;
Who soon with nimble fingers them divest
Of all their blossom'd pride.—The spiral bines,
A seeming load, behold! the youngster-tribe
Hug in their little arms, and high compiled,
Devote them to the flame. Consum'd, these yield
The soil nutritious aliment saline,
And aid its future need.—From bin to bin
Assiduous hies the Planter, and surveys
The gen'ral work;—commends, instructs, reproves—
As Industry, and Ignorance, and Sloth
May sev'rally require,—bids, for the Kiln,
Load mercifully Dobbin, now grown old,
That has for many a season lent her [*qu. his?*] aid,
And, conscious, seems to share the festive joy.

'The blossoms, newly pick'd, behold convey'd
To the domestic kiln, which nicest Care
Heats to extract from ev'ry fragrant leaf
The vegetable moisture, unexhal'd
By Summer's fervid pow'r. O Planter! now
At stake is all the Produce of thy Toil.
If Heat excessive scorch thy gather'd store—
Worthless as arid chaff, by winnowy sails
Out cast deceptive to expectant birds,
No flavour'd essence to the tepid vat
Will it impart, and to thy purse no gold.
'By slow degrees when parch'd to th' inmost core—
The sever'd clusters thence to ampler space
Convey, and let thy swains with shovel broad
Throw them, alternate, long, from side to side,
Fast flick'ring, countless, like soft flakes of snow.
'Now, dry as leaves which rustle to the tread,
When Autumn, frosty-bright, disrobes the groves,
And strews their golden honours o'er the glade—
The last concluding task, they claim, is thine,
Thy hempen sacks, capacious, high suspend,
Till, satiate, each (close trod by pressing feet)
Swell to its measur'd bulk rotund, and wait
A welcom'd journey to the neighb'ring mart *.'

The story of Emma and Osmund in the second book seems to be a copy from Celadon and Amelia in Thomson's Seasons; and we cannot say that the comparison is favourable to the imitation.—As the author describes the following instance of generosity in a soldier as founded in truth, it deserved to be recorded in the pleasing and impressive manner in which he has related it:

'Beside a path, worn bare by frequent feet,
Sat—shiv'ring in the blast—an hoary wretch,
On whose quench'd eye-balls the meridian sun
Wasted its beams. A weather-beaten cap
He, silent, held; and left his piteous case
To tongue his woe. But few more falt'ring steps,
Thro' the dark world, he lonely had to tread,
And then find shelter in the peaceful grave.
—Speechless he sat; but sat not long, in vain.
A brave Defender of old England's Isle
Came where he was; and, with observant eye,
Beheld and pitied him. On furlough bent,

'* The method of bagging the Hops is this: a hole being made in an upper-floor large enough to receive the mouth of a bag or pocket (as it is usually called) a handful of hops is tied in each lower corner, to serve as holdings; the mouth is then fastened securely round the hole; when the hops are thrown in by one person, while another continues to tread them down till the bag is full.'

A knapsack o'er his belted shoulders lay,
Containing his attire—soon told; small wealth
He boasted else: yet, of that little, cast
A lib'ral portion to the Suppliant old,—
Unseen, he ween'd, by ev'ry mortal eye.
But *one*, not less with Admiration touch'd
Than He with Pity, saw the gen'rous deed,
And thus him instant hail'd: "Well pleas'd, brave Youth!
Witness'd have I thy Bounty; which but ill
A Soldier's purse can spare.—Allow me thus
Such Goodness to requite:—be this thy meed,"
He said,—presenting, with his courteous speech,
A piece of silver. Grateful, this, receiv'd
The youthful warrior, and, receding straight,
The splendid coin bestow'd where late he threw
His former off'ring: then the donor kind
Accosted thus—"Forgive, too gen'rous Sir!
My rude appropriation of thy gift,
Which that poor Suff'rer's Wants more urgent need
Than do my own."—This said, he hied away—
Swift, as if marching to the battle's call,
Debarring further converse; or afraid
To hear the voice of praise. Unknown, he fled,
Defeating ev'ry purpose to promote
Him in the martial ranks which Freedom's Isle
Guard from each hostile arm.—But, where pale Want
Compassion's willing mite no more shall claim,
The King of kings near his eternal throne
Will place the Christian-hero: for the deed
Approving Spirits, on aërial wing,
To heav'n's high chancery, delighted, bore;
And the recording Angel * it inscrib'd
On monumental adamant and gold,
In glorious characters of living light,
Bright as the sun, and purer than his fires.'

We must now finish our remarks on this poem; of which a judgment may be formed from the quotations that we have made. On former occasions, we have expressed a favorable opinion of Dr. Booker's poetical talents, which is not lessened by the perusal of the present work †.

'* The *accusing Spirit*, and *recording Angel* mentioned by Sterne will not fail here to occur to the mind of the reader.'

† An account of Dr. B.'s poem descriptive of *Malvern* will be found in our Review for December 1798. The volume before us forms a kind of supplement to that publication.

Art. XV. *The Pastoral Care.* By the late Alexander Gerard, D.D. F.R.S.E. Professor of Divinity in the University and King's College of Aberdeen, and one of his Majesty's Chaplains in Ordinary for Scotland. Published by his Son and Successor, Gilbert Gerard, D.D. 8vo. pp. 427. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

Experience demonstrates that those whose peculiar profession it is to instruct the rest of mankind, in the duties of religion, have themselves often need of improvement, admonition, and reproof; and early in the history of the Christian church, works designed for this purpose were deemed expedient and necessary. Among the most eloquent compositions of the eloquent Chrysostom, are his six books *on the Priesthood;* and the *Cura Pastoralis* of Gregory, called the Great, is inferior to none of his other writings. In latter times, particularly in France, an incredible number of volumes have been published, in various forms and under various titles, on the same subject: which has not been neglected by the writers of our own country, although those who have professedly written *on the duties of a Pastor* are not very numerous: unless we take into the account the many Episcopal *Charges* which are almost yearly given by our vigilant and zealous Prelates. Among these, the charges of Secker hold a distinguished rank; and, with the *Pastoral Care* of Burnet, and the *Ecclesiastical Cases* of Stillingfleet, form a good body of pastoral instructions, adapted to our established system of religion, and to the situation of the English clergy.

The posthumous volume before us is chiefly calculated for the situation of the Scottish clergy: but, as the editor observes, it 'may not be unprofitable to those also of other persuasions; who will find it throughout breathing a spirit of rational and elevated piety, and marked with that candour and moderation which distinguished the character of the writer.'—To this we willingly subscribe, after we have read the whole volume with attention; and it is with pleasure that we now sit down to give a more particular account of its contents.

It is divided into Three Parts; of which the first treats on *the Importance of the Pastoral Office,*—the second on *the Duties of the Pastoral Office,*—and the third on *the Requisites for performing those Duties.* All these subjects are discussed in a plain, easy, methodical manner; and although the style is neither animated nor elegant, it is never embarrassed nor obscure: two defects which are far from being uncommon in the writings of the present-day.

The *Importance of the pastoral office* arises from two circumstances; its *dignity* and its *difficulty.* By some, the dignity of this sacred office has been displayed in all the pomp of eloquence, and exaggerated by an accumulation of the boldest figures: but the present age would give no indulgence to that sort of declamation. To raise the dignity of the pastoral station above the naked truth is indeed not only useless but hurtful also, in the apprehension of our author: 'what has real dignity and importance stands not in need of exaggeration . . . a simple exposition of its intrinsic moment is sufficient for procuring it that degree of honour which it merits, and will most effectually procure it.'

The Christian ministry, according to Dr. Gerard, is truly an holy office, but only in this sense that it is occupied about holy things. In every case, the dignity of an occupation depends, in a great degree, on its end; and in this view the Christian ministry possesses the greatest dignity: for the pastoral office is concerned not about the temporal fortunes of men, but about their immortal souls. Not only from the sublimity of its end, however, but also from the nature of its functions, it derives honour and weight. It is the business of ministers to inculcate the noblest truths; and to form the souls of men to that divine temper, which will fit them for the everlasting society of God. The real dignity and importance of the pastoral office, therefore, ought to impress, both on those who occupy it and on those who aspire to it, sentiments which are truly and uniformly becoming it. 'By setting out with a high sense of the dignity and importance of their profession, and constantly maintaining that sense, they will best preserve themselves from thinking or acting beneath it, will refine and elevate their views and aims in choosing, in undertaking, and in executing it; and add spirit to all their endeavours,' in all these respects. —From the people, also, the nature of the pastoral office demands respect. A value for the office itself, and esteem for those who worthily exercise it, are inseparable. 'Every instance of disregard to the functions of a minister betrays a defect in men's value for their office, and every failure in improving by their functions shews some perversion in the manner of conceiving the importance of their office.'

Such is the subject of the first three sections of ch. 1. In sect. 4. the Doctor treats *On the Contempt of the Clergy:* which spirit shews itself in different ways. Sometimes it breaks out against the office itself. 'In establishments, where it leads to riches or political pre-eminence, it is reproached as prostituted to worldly views; and in others where it can scarcely raise the occupiers above poverty, it is despised as low and unreputable, by artfully confounding its natural and primary tendency, with the abuses of it, after this tendency has been resisted and defeated.

eated. By exaggerating these abuses and the ill effects resulting from them; and by overlooking every circumstance in the ffice which can counterbalance them; it has been misrepreented as having a fixt and unalterable tendency to promote in ninisters the gross vices of hypocrisy, superstition, ambition, anity, party-spirit, rancour, and revenge.'

The same spirit leads men to exaggerate the faults of the lergy, and to set them in the most odious lights; to convert maginary faults into real vices, and small failings into atrocious crimes. Yet this is not all: 'the faults of the clergy are charged on religion itself; and the contempt of the office grows into contempt of religion;'—or, 'when men's contempt of the clergy proceeds not so far as this; yet it often shews itself in a contempt of their ministrations, and indifference for attendance on them.'—Dr. Gerard then asks, Whence can such sentiments proceed? and he answers, that they sometimes arise 'from the contagion of the spirit of infidelity; which often corrupts the sentiments and practice of those whose faith it cannot absolutely subvert.' Attachment to vicious habits is another natural cause of disrespect for the Christian ministry. The Doctor well observes that 'it is not surprising that they, who are addicted to wickedness, should dislike those who endeavour to check wickedness; or that they who hate to be reformed, should hate those whose business it is to labour to reform them.'—Too low a sense of the excellence of religion may also sink a man's esteem of the pastoral office; and differences of opinion in matters of religion sometimes contribute to a degree of disrespect for the clergy.—When these or other causes have introduced a contempt of the clerical order, it can scarcely fail to spread; and when that disdain becomes prevalent, 'no situation, no behaviour, can procure the clergy that honour and respect, to which their office entitles them.—All that they have in their power is, to prepare themselves for bearing it, and to behave with propriety under it.'

In the remaining part of this section, Dr. G. gives some good advice to the clergy concerning their own behaviour, when they are thus assailed; and he points out the most proper means of obviating the contempt of others, when they find themselves the object of it.

In Ch. II. consisting of three sections, Dr. G. treats *on the Difficulties of the Pastoral Office.*

First, *the nature of its difficulties.* Every office of government is attended with difficulties: but that of the clergy, being a government of souls, is the most arduous of all duties. The various names by which they are called in the Scriptures demonstrate this. They are *rulers, ambassadors, stewards, bishops,* *overseers*, *inspectors*, *shepherds*, *watchmen*, *ministers*, *soldiers*. They are exhorted to *wait on*, to *study*, to *take heed*, to *give attendance*, to *labour*, to *endure*, to *encounter difficulties*, *fatigues*, and *dangers*. 'From these representations, (says our author,) the work of a minister appears to be abundantly difficult, though all things should conspire in the most friendly manner with his endeavours to promote and execute it: but the difficulty is immensely increased by the great and numerous obstructions which are opposed to his endeavours; arising both from himself and the people; his own infirmities and imperfections; and the stupidity, prejudices, and vices of other men.'

These difficulties ought to deter every man from undertaking the pastoral charge, who is not determined to devote himself to its duties. He must not deem any preparation too much. It is not enough to acquire necessary knowlege; he must learn to apply it properly to the discharge of his functions; and to the particular situations which may occur to him, in the business of a minister. 'Under a lively sense of the arduous nature of his work, he will study, by all the methods of instruction, exhortation, admonition, reproof, terror, consolation, persuasion, in public and in private, in their health, and in their sickness, &c. to enlighten the ignorant, to fix the unthinking, to awaken the secure, to reclaim the wicked, to resolve the doubting, to confirm the wavering, to strengthen the weak, to perfect the saints. To this he will devote his time, his strength, and his talents.'—This is the subject of the second section.

Sect. 3. *Of the true Spirit of the Pastoral Office.* Every profession has its proper spirit: that of the clerical profession consists in a love of its duties, a zeal to perform them in the best manner, and a warm ambition to accomplish its end. Animated with this spirit, the minister will perform all his duties with alacrity, with perseverance, with pleasure, and with success.

We come now to the *Second Part* of this work, which treats on *the Duties of the Pastoral Office*, and is divided into four chapters. Chapter I. regards *the private Duties of a Pastor*, *respecting Individuals*, and is subdivided into nine sections, in the following order:—of Example—of private Instruction—of private Exhortation—of counselling—of visiting the afflicted—of reproving—of convincing—of reconciling Differences—of Care of the Poor. On each of these heads the Doctor makes a number of good, but mostly trite observations; on which we therefore shall not dwell: but we recommend them to the attention of those young clergymen who wish to know the duties of their state, and to perform them with effect.

We also confine ourselves to giving the contents of Chapter II. on *Private Duties respecting lesser Societies;* which contains some excellent remarks on the Visitation of Families—Catechizing—Fellowship-meetings—Marrying—and subordinate Duties.

In Ch. III. the Doctor treats on *Public or Parochial Duties;* in two sections: the first of which is *On Preaching*, subdivided into nine articles, on *Instructive* or explicatory Discourses, *Convictive* or probatory Discourses, *Panegyrical* or demonstrative Discourses, *Suasory* Discourses:—then of *Invention*, *Disposition*, *Elocution*, *Memory*, *Pronunciation*, and *Action:* in all which we find nothing new, nor any thing said in a new manner; but which is not, on that account, the less valuable to those to whom it is addressed. The second section of this chapter regards the administration of the sacraments, and the other occasional parts of public worship.

In Chapter IV. the author makes some pertinent remarks on such *Ecclesiastical duties as respect the church in general;* or in as far as ministers are members of judicatories. Among these duties, in our opinion, the foremost is the qualification of candidates for the ministry. We shall give the author's own words on this subject:

'Nothing can have a nearer connection with the prevalence or the decline of religion and virtue, than the abilities and manners of the clergy. The greatest care is therefore incumbent on those on whom the choice of them depends. A minister ought to take all the pains he can, to learn the true character of those who are proposed for this office; and if he be not fully satisfied, either by his personal knowlege, or by the information of those who have personal knowlege, that they are, in respect both of understanding and morals, really qualified for this office, he should not be prevailed on, by friendship, or attachment, or compassion, or any sort of influence, to concur in bringing them into this important office. It is an exhortation of the Apostle Paul, "Lay hands suddenly on no man, neither be partaker of other men's sins." (1 Tim. v. 22.) To do it suddenly is to do it without a strict and accurate inquiry into a man's real character; and by doing it thus suddenly, men in some measure incur a share in the guilt of the unworthy person to whose promotion they contribute. This is, in general, very little attended to: but every clergyman ought to charge his conscience, in a deep and particular manner, not to contribute to bring any person into the ministry, if he have any reason to think that his abilities are not such as may raise him above contempt, and render him really useful, or that his life is not so regular and his temper so virtuous, as to make him fit to be put in holy orders. This will be particularly incumbent on a clergyman in presbyteries, where motions for licensing take their first rise; for there one has the best opportunities for information; and superior judicatories are often obliged to take things for granted on

Galland, in his French version, are now for the first time cloathed in an European dress.

The son of a powerful Sultan is falsely accused by a concubine, and his father orders him to be put to death. Each of the Viziers, of whom there are seven, relates a story, to prove the artfulness of women, in order to save the prince; while the concubine, as may be supposed, is at no loss to produce seven more tales, to illustrate the craft of man. The mind of the Sultan might have fluctuated between them to this day: but a spell, which had imposed silence on the young prince, is broken, and he explains the imposture.—Such is the vehicle for this series of stories; of which "the merchant's wife and her suitors," and the "young merchant," are the two best: but we suspect that it will be found that M. Galland's selection from the Arabian work has been a judicious one.—In the tale of the officer and the merchant's wife, we recognize the story of the Gopi in Hetopadesa; and in that of the ten old men and the decayed rake, we see the foundation of Sir William Jones's poem of the seven fountains.

These tales are followed by anecdotes, a favourite style of composition in the East. The famous Gulistan and Bostan of Shaikh Sadi are collections of anecdotes in prose and verse; and innumerable are the productions of the same sort, by writers of less eminence. They at once diffuse the sublime sentiments of their popular heroes, illustrate particular characters, and convey a general idea of the manners of courts, and the rude jocularity of the vulgar. Feridun, celebrated for his mild beneficence; Nushirvan, for his inflexible justice; and Hatim Taï, for his unbounded generosity; are the usual heroes of these traditionary narratives. Captain Scott has selected those before us from the Tohfet al Mujalis, a work compiled in India about 25 years ago; the Hubbil al Sir has furnished him with some interesting anecdotes of the family of Barmecides, so renowned for their generosity and their misfortunes; while the *bons mots* of Abid supply him with others of a ludicrous nature. —We insert a few specimens of Oriental repartee.

'The tyrant Hijaj one day in hunting was separated from his attendants, and meeting with an Arab, addressed him, saying "What sort of a personage is your sovereign?" "Cruel, treacherous, bloodthirsty and adulterous," replied the man. "Dost thou know me?" said the tyrant. "No," rejoined the Arab. "I am Hijaj," answered he. "Dost thou know me?" said the Arab. "No," was the reply. "Know then, said the Arab, that I am one of the landholders of this desart, and the members of our family are by fatality afflicted with insanity for three days every year; to day is one of them." The tyrant smiled, though hurt, and let the Arab escape, notwithstanding his freedom.'

'A person was found in the streets carrying an empty wine jar. The officer of police commanded him to receive the number of stripes settled by the law to be inflicted on a drunkard. "What is my fault?" said the man. "Thou hast with thee (replied the officer) the instrument of intoxication." "True, (rejoined the culprit) and I have likewise about me the instrument of adultery; inflict upon me also the punishment of that crime." The officer laughed and let the man go.'

'The celebrated physician Bezerchemehr used every morning to awaken Nushirvan, and descant much on the benefits of early rising. As he was once going to court, agreeably to custom, before daylight, a thief robbed him of his turban. The emperor enquired the reason of his being bare-headed, and being informed, jeeringly said, "Didst thou not tell me, that the benefits of early rising were numerous? See what has happened to thyself from being up so soon." "The thief (replied the physician) was up before me, and therefore enjoyed the advantage of my doctrine."

'A poet wrote an ode in praise of a Turk, who was much pleased, and desired him to come to him on the morrow, when he would give him a certain quantity of grain. The poet, early the next morning, repaired to the house of his patron, with a porter and a large bag. "What dost thou want?" said the Turk. "The grain you promised me," replied the poet. "Friend (answered the Turk) you tickled my ears yesterday with a few empty words, and I returned the favour with an empty promise."

'A poetical critic said to the celebrated poet Jami, "I have written ninety-nine criticisms on the poems of Hafiz." "God have mercy upon thee, (said Jami) what answer will thou give to God at the last day."

'A taylor following the army was wounded in the head by an arrow. When the surgeon saw the wound, he told his patient, that as the weapon had not touched his brain, there was no doubt of his recovery. The taylor said "if I had possessed any brains, I should not have been there."

'An unfortunate beggar went to a miser, and asked for a garment, saying that his object was to have something to remember him by. "My friend," said the miser, "as thy end is to remember me, I shall give thee nothing; for I am sure thou wilt remember a refusal much longer than a gift."

Subjoined to these anecdotes, we find translations of several letters from Aurungzebe to his father Shah Gehan, and to his accomplished sister, the princess Gehanara. We wish that the ingenious translator had published them in their chronological order. Some were written before Aurungzebe mounted the throne; others subsequently to the deposition of his father; and all display, in disgusting colours, the hypocritical pretensions to superior piety, in which that artful prince was accustomed to envelope his insidious designs. We suspect that Captain Scott mistakes in asserting that 'the degraded Rajahs of Calicut and Mysor are of the same family' with the antient monarchs of

Vijanagar. They were tributaries till the overthrow of that empire, but we have reason for doubting their consanguinity; we imagine that they are not even of the same cast.

Captain Scott's merit as a translator is too well known to require additional encomium; and we conceive that the nature of his present work will attract, and probably gratify, more than those who have a taste for Oriental literature.

Art. XVII. *Letters from Paris, to the Citizens of the United States of America,* on the System of Policy hitherto pursued by their Government, relative to their commercial Intercourse with England and France, &c. By Joel Barlow. 8vo. pp. 116. 3s. Ridgway. 1800.

The voice of this revolutionary Apostle has not been heard for some time; and his pen also seems to have been long at rest. When the present pamphlet appeared, therefore, we were curious to remark what impressions the scenes which he had witnessed in France had made on his mind. We perceive that he still adheres to his cause, and is still the advocate of pure democracy: but the glowing enthusiasm, the bold predictions of the downfall of regal and feudal institutions, and the confident anticipations of republican ascendancy, which marked his earlier labours, appear not in this production. That he feels despondency, we have no doubt: but that he should disclose so many indications of it, was not perhaps to be expected.

In his first letter, he inveighs against the funding system of America, and the military marine recently forming there. He contends that the Americans, in order to have maintained their rights on the capture of their vessels by England, should have confiscated all English property, whether invested in the American funds, or remaining in the hands of individuals. Of this sort of reprisal, commercial men judge better than speculative writers; and we believe that they are unanimous in considering it as more destructive, than that which is at present established.

The following passage seems to throw some light on the subject of the late rupture between France and America, and to disclose a curious fact with respect to the former country:

> 'I make no exception in the argument on account of the present deplorable rupture with France, because this rupture never would have happened, if we had not first resigned our armour to England; and because the necessary energies and violent convulsions of the revolution have concentrated for a moment all possible powers within the walls of Paris; so that the voice of the commercial towns, the colonies, and the true interests of the nation, are not heard.'

The author's second and last letter is dated since the formation of the consulate: but we find him silent on this extraordinary event.—He bestows the most liberal praise on the constitution of the American states. According to him, it is a model for nations; and nothing ever matched in wisdom the federal and provincial distributions of political power, which it ordains. Provincial government, it is said, best accomplishes the ends of internal administration, and the federal gives strength with respect to foreign relations. Our readers will recollect how much this doctrine was, at one period, cried down in France, and that it was laid to the charge of the Brissotins as a capital offence, an article of treason. Let us hear what Mr. Barlow says on this subject, when speaking of that country:

> 'It seems then that the tendency of civilization is to diminish the number of nations, and to increase their size and prosperity. But this kind of progression, as applied to independent nations, is limited by the nature of things. The few men, to whom the government of a state must be confided, cannot extend their knowledge nor multiply their attentions to such a degree as the affairs of a great people would require. France, in her present limits, presents a mass of population and territory sufficient for at least twenty integral and well-constituted states. Her legislative body is representative; it is twice as numerous as any legislative body ought to be; and yet it is not the fifth part so numerous as a proper representation of the people would require. It is incumbered with much more business than it can treat with that attention which the business deserves; and yet not half the affairs which are necessary to the people are ever brought up for its deliberation. This republic, for the purposes of interior or local legislation and police, should be organized into about twenty subordinate republics; while, for the purposes of general legislation, exterior relations, defence, commerce, canals, roads, and every common concern, they should remain concentrated in one great union, or community, with a national legislative and executive, restricted in their powers to the simple objects of great national interest; which objects should be defined with the utmost precision in their general constitution.'—
>
> 'This beneficent system of federalizing appears to be the only resource that nature has offered us, at least in the present state of political science, for avoiding at once the two dangerous extremes of having the republic too great for an equitable administration within, or too small for security without. On this principle, if wisely pursued, no confederated republic will be too great, and no member of it too small; as all subjects of jealousy will be done away by the nature of the association. The new republics of Europe must resort to this principle, if they mean to hold the ground they have gained, in changing their feudal for their representative constitutions. Could we flatter ourselves that they would resort to it at the end of the present war, then we might hope to see the moral force of nations take place of their physical force, the civilization of states keep pace with that of individuals,

individuals, and their commercial relations established on the principles of peace.'

Whether this be one of the constitutions which lie in the "*Pigeon holes* of the Abbé Sieyes," and of which France will make the trial; or whether it possesses all the advantages which the author ascribes to it; are points on which we shall hazard no conjectures.

The writer states, under six heads, the means by which America is to secure her interior liberty:

1. The public debt must be extinguished.

2. Congress should remove without delay to the federal city; which would have better answered its destination, had it been placed a hundred miles higher on the Potowmac.

3. All possible land and water communications should be opened between the central and the frontier states.

4. A republican direction should be given to the elementary articles of public instruction.

5. The government should so conduct itself, as to induce the gigantic colonies west of the Mississippi, when the time comes at which they shall shake off the dominion of the parent states, to join the American union, on the principle of self-interest.

6. Never to tolerate a standing army.

The remarks under the fifth head deserve the politician's notice: we shall quote a part of them:

'It is essential that we should so conduct our own affairs, as to set them such an example of rational liberty and public happiness, as they cannot fail to admire, and must therefore wish to partake.

'Our frontier states, which border on theirs, must necessarily entertain an intimate and extensive intercourse with them. Reciprocal migrations and intermarriages will be numerous between them; their commerce will be active; their manners, language, and modes of education will be the same on both sides. The probability is, that if we do not induce them to join themselves to us, they will induce some of our extensive districts to quit us and join with them.

'But if at that day the United States should be clear of debt, and should exhibit the singular phenomenon of a wise, impartial, and energetic government, reserving so much power to individual states as shall enable the people to regulate the great mass of their most interesting concerns at home, where they are best understood, and yet continuing a sufficient force in the federal head to ensure at all times the means of giving protection and obtaining respect,—there can be no insuperable objection, and there may be a powerful inducement, for those new nations to form their state governments after the model of ours, and to join our confederation.

'I am aware of the inconvenience that might arise from the magnitude of this projected empire; as the colonies in question are spreading over a surface at least equal to that of the present United States. The objection is weighty; but my answer is at hand: by encountering this inconvenience, which is new, and therefore formidable in appearance, we avoid those that are infinitely more serious; though, from being familiar and thought unavoidable, they are less attended to. There is no political inconvenience so great as the neighbourhood of independent and rival nations. Their commercial restrictions, their military preparations, their fortified frontiers, their interfering jurisdictions, their whimsical and undefinable points of honour, give so many occasions of dispute in the minds of passionate or ambitious men, that such nations, if not always at war, must be always in such a warlike posture, as to present a perpetual image of the savage state, degrade the morals and devour the substance of the people.

'Besides, I apprehend that if we well consider the nature of a federal government, we shall have less reason to dread the extension of its limits. The objects of its legislation are few, according to our present system; and I have no doubt but this might still be simplified, without risk of lessening its energy. If its simplification should be found practicable, this circumstance may add to the inducements that our neighbours may one day have to join us in confederation, and may diminish on our side the inconvenience which many will apprehend from the first view of the case.'

The author next discusses the subject of Commercial Liberty, proposes plans for establishing and supporting it, and invites America and France to exert their influence in favour of a revisal of the law of nations on this head. He recommends it to be enacted, under the auspices of these and other states, that the flag of a neutral power shall protect an enemy's property; that there shall be no contraband of war; that the situation of a neutral power shall not be changed by the breaking out of a war among its neighbours; that there shall be no blockades of kingdoms, and large districts, by proclamations; and that neutral vessels, going to places in a state of siege, shall be made prizes only in the second attempt. He farther proposes that a maritime convention shall be established, whose business it shall be to define and declare, and at the same time to guarantee, the rights of commerce; and that, under this convention, into which all commercial states shall be invited to enter, there shall be constituted, in one of the Hanseatic towns, a Chancery of Commerce, invested with powers to determine all commercial differences between the contracting parties: the Chancery to consist of delegates from the several states thus confederating, each state sending one. For farther information respecting this proposed tribunal, we must refer to the work itself.—A very desirable and beneficial extension of the functions of such an institution is intimated in the following passage:

'A sincere desire in the contracting parties to preserve the peace of Europe against all the other pretexts on which it is usually violated, may possibly induce them to extend the powers of the Chancery in question to all other branches of the rights of nations, as well as to those relating to commerce. In that case they will doubtless agree upon, and declare a new code of public law, or law of nations, complete in all its parts, and commit the conservation of it to this body of delegates.'

This writer ranks among the most able and temperate of those who have lately employed the pen in the cause of pure democracy. Like his associates, he deals largely in professions of general benevolence: but in this common stock, the parent of the nation to which he belongs has but a trifling share. Great Britain only occurs in his pages to be reprobated and stigmatized. Is there nothing discoverable in this singular country, which merits praise; nothing in its constitution, nothing in the security of person and property enjoyed under the protection of its government, nothing in its administration of law and its observance of religion, nothing in the general character of its people, to extort one single respectful expression?—We cannot dispute the ability of this writer. but that he is free from partiality and bias is a testimony to which, we believe, he must be himself conscious he is not intitled.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1800.

EAST INDIES.

Art. 18. *Journal of a Route to Nagpûr*, by the Way of Cuttac, Borosumbher, and the Southern Bunjar ghât, in the Year 1790; with an Account of Nagpûr, and a Journal from that Place to Benâres, by the Suhaji pass. By Daniel Robinson Leckie, Esq. Illustrated with a Map. 4to. pp. 103. 7s. Boards. Stockdale. 1800.

THE writer of this journal accompanied the late Mr. Forster, in an official capacity, on his embassy to Nagpur. His route lay through the countries inhabited by the Orias, and the Gonds, formerly two independent nations of Hindus, but now subjected to the Merhatta prince, Ragoji Bhusla. From Sonpur on the Mahanadi, to Nagpur, the capital of Ragoji's dominions, the stations are little known to European geographers.

The inhabitants generally presented an appearance of poverty, and in some places seemed to yield little submission to their nominal chief. Mr. Leckie draws a flattering comparison between the peasantry of the East India Company's territories, and their southern neighbours. Cuttac is the capital of the province of Orissa; (it is inaccurately spelt Cuttac throughout this work.) Mr. Leckie places it near the apex

pex of a delta formed by the Mahanadi and Cujara rivers, while ajor Rennell's map exhibits it seated on a small island; and he states e revenues of this province at 22 lacs of Rupees, of which ten ly are remitted to Nagpur. The whole of Ragoji's revenues he timates at 70 lacs.—In stating the boundaries of the antient king-om of Gondwana, Mr. Leckie supposes the Urdha river to fall into e Bhimagunga, and not into the Godaveri; were this certain, it ould supply an important correction in the geography of that arter. The source of the Mahanadi, which is placed by M. de la ochette to the north of Dongur Ghur, is said by Mr. L. (though ly from report) to lie 120 miles south-west from that station.—his performance may prove useful in the construction of a future ap of Hindustan.

rt. 19. *The Asiatic Annual Register;* or a View of the History of Hindustan, and of the Politics, Commerce, and Literature of Asia, for the Year 1799. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Debrett. 1800.

The plan of this work is nearly similar to that of Dodsley's An-ual Register; except that the events of the year, instead of being igested into an historic form, appear in the original documents. A ursory but judicious view of the principal events in the history of lindustan, previously to the year 1608, is prefixed to the volume.—'o periodical publications, in which original composition forms a nall and no very important part, the nature of our work does not re-uire us to advert: but the utility of the present volume, to those ho are interested in Oriental affairs, has induced us to announce it, d to state that the first volume suggests a very favourable opinion f the industry and talents of the conductors.

HISTORY.

rt. 20. *An Introduction to the History of Poetry in Scotland,* from the Beginning of the Thirteenth Century down to the present Time; together with a Conversation on Scottish Song. By Alexander Campbell, Author of Odes and Miscellaneous Poems, &c. To which are subjoined Sangs of the Lowlands of Scotland, carefully compared with the original Editions, and embellished with characteristic designs, composed and engraved by the late David Allan, Historical Painter. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; London, Ridgway. 1799.

In the history of poetry, we expect to find at some length the lives : those eminent persons, whose vivid fancy could recall into existence e fabulous heroes of antiquity; lend new charms to the simple auty of unsophisticated nature; transport the rapt mind, with agic force, into remote or aerial regions; or embellish the ideas of olished society with the bewitching graces of flowing wit. We pect an analysis of the productions to which they owed their lebrity, accompanied by a candid appreciation of their positive and mparative excellencies; and finally, a critical estimate of the pro-ress or retrogression of taste at different periods, since genius must e presumed to be equal in all times.—Such expectations the work efore us is not calculated to gratify. Indeed, the field selected by the author for his exercitations is by no means fertile in prodigies. Of the poets who wrote in the Scottish dialect, perhaps, Douglas, Drummond, Dunbar, Ramsay, and Burns, are all to whose biography the attention of the literary world would be impelled by admiration. To write indifferent verses is a task of little difficulty, and less advantage; and time cannot be more unprofitably spent than in such an occupation; if we except that which is employed in detailing the history of such poets. The Scottish nation has too solid pretensions to literary excellence, to wish to elevate the obscure versifiers of her vernacular dialect to the rank of poets; or to admire, because presented in that form, verses which would be judged execrable if they were divested of words endeared by familiar habit, and of that association of ideas which connects them with infantine amusement, and the simplicity of childhood.

In the Sangs here presented, we discover nothing new. The Gaberlunzie man, and the Jolly beggar, are attributed to King James V. by the present writer; and "Christ's kirk on the green" is thought to be a production of the same period. A sort of low humour is the characteristic of these, and we presume of most of the popular songs of Scotland previously to Ramsay, of which the words are preserved; for the original verses of the plaintive airs were forgotten when he composed those which are now sung. In times of little refinement, the tricks of mendicants might afford much diversion; and the boisterous jokes of a country ale-house might appear poignant, and be felt as such; while personal defects would be considered as fair objects for the derision of the poet and his audience. In such days, the following verses might find their admirers:

"And there will be sowlibber Peatie,
Aud plouckie-fac't Wat in the mill,
Capper nos'd Gibbie and Francie,
That wins in the how of the hill;
And there will be Alaster Dougal,
That splee-fitted Bessie did woo,
And sniffling Lillie, and Tibbie,
And Kirsty, that belly god sow."

The re-publication of such stuff now may justly excite some surprise. In the work before us, indeed, the lover of poetry will find nothing to admire, and little that he will wish to recollect.—We have discovered two couplets that will convey a general idea of the poetry which it contains, and a pretty correct notion of two books at once. What these are cannot elude the discernment of our readers.

"He said, that book which he gave to me,
Was of Mr. Michael Scot's historie,
Which history was never yet read through,
Nor never will, for no man dare it do."

ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 21. *Reliquiæ Divi Andreæ;* or the State of the venerable and primitial See of St. Andrews: containing an Account of the

Rise, Advancement, Dignities, Honours, Jurisdictions, Privileges, and Revolutions of this antient See; and of the Church Benefices of old belonging thereto, and of late annext thereto, in the Kirks now belonging to the same, &c; with some Historical Memoirs of some of the most famous Prelates and Primates thereof. By a true (though unworthy) Sone of the Church. 4to. pp. 253. 10s. 6d. Boards. Printed at St. Andrews, by the Printer to the University. London, Johnson. 1797.

Though this work appears now for the first time in print, it was written in 1683, by Mr. George Martin of Clermont, who seems to have held some office, probably that of Secretary, under Archbishop Sharp. In the time of the author, some traces of the Bardic order still existed in Scotland. 'They are called by others, and by themselves,' says Mr. Martin, 'Jockies, who go about begging, and use still to recite the sluggornes (watch words, or *cris de guerre*) of most of the true ancient surnames of Scotland, from old experience and observation. Some of them I have discoursed, and found to have reason and discretion. One of them told me there were not now twelve of them in the whole isle; but he remembered when they abounded, so as at one time he was one of five that usuallie met at St. Andrews.'

The diffusion of the Druidical tenets, founded on the dogma of transmigration, and stained with the blood of human sacrifices, gradually superseded the more innocent superstitions of our remoter ancestors. Their doctrines are said by Cæsar to have originated in Britain; and he also mentions that their records were kept in the Greek character. 'The name of druid continueth still among the Irish and Scottish highlanders; for not only in the histories and romances written by their Senecios or Shannachies, mention is made of an enchanted horn, called by them corn druid heacht, ancientlie in use in those parts; but the translator of the New Testament into Irish renders Magi by Druids, and Simon Magus is called Simon the druid; and it is said that he wrought druidh, *i. e.* sorcerie. Elymas the sorcerer is called druidh.'

The Christian faith became the established religion of Scotland in A. D. 203, by the conversion of king Donald; and Mr. Martin, as a 'true sone of the church,' may exult that "*nullus unquam populus leviore opera ad Christum est conversus, et tantus fuit ad doctores concursus, ut baptizando populo sacerdotes deessent.*"—In A. D. 365, Regulus, a Greek monk, living at Patræ, a city of Achaia, was warned by a vision to transport the relics of St. Andrew to a western region named Albion. 'By force of a storme, the ship was driven into the bay, near the place where St. Andrews now stands, and there split asunder on the rocks.' At this period, Hergustus, in his capital of Abernethy, ruled the Picts, or Pights, who inhabited the eastern coasts of that country, which has since their extinction been named Scotland. 'He gave to Regulus and his company all the lands of that forreste, with all the men dwelling therein, and his own palace, and near thereto erected a church, the same whereof (with the steeple yet intire) we see a pairt yet remaining on the south-east side of the ruined cathedral, (built many years after,) called to this day the church of St. Rewle.' These Christian priests and their successors were termed Culdees, *i.e. cultores dei.* The word Kil, which we find prefixed to the names of so many places in Scotland, (as Kilrewel, Kilpatrick, &c.) signifies cell. Abernethy, however, continued the seat of regal and ecclesiastic authority, until the overthrow of the Pightish monarchy in 840, when Kenneth II. conferred on the Bishop of St. Andrews the primacy of all Scotland. The name and order of the Culdees ceased about the beginning of the 14th century, after which we no longer hear of them.

'In 1471,' Pope Sixtus IV. to silence the pretensions of the Archbishop of York to a precedencie over the church of Scotland, erected the see of St. Andrews into ane archbishoprick and primitial see, making the incumbent there primate and metropolitane of all Scotland.'—'The cathedral church was 160 years in building; and considering the time it was demolisht (viz. in June 1559) it stood entire 240 years; and from the foundation to the razing thereof (occasioned by a sermon of John Knoxes against idolatrie, preached at Crail to a giddy lawless multitude) was just 400 years.'

We learn from the editor, 'that the general appearance of the remains of this large building (the cathedral church) makes a curious contrast with the entire steeple of St. Rule which stands beside it, and which is vastly more than twice as old. St. Rule's steeple is built of a much harder and more compact stone than the cathedral, and the masonry is also much better. The architecture of St. Rule is not Gothic, the arches above the doors and windows being uninterrupted semicircles.'

To the Scottish antiquary, Mr. Martin's composition may probably give pleasure; on others, it will operate as a soporific, and in some it may create nausea.

NOVELS.

Art. 22. *Constantia Neville;* or, The West Indian. By Helena Wells, Author of the Step Mother, &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

A vein of moralizing runs through this performance, which is frequently of too censorious a cast: but in the preface the writer 'disclaims all personality;' though she professes to be 'aware that many will find likenesses to her portraits in individuals, to whose habits of life and modes of thinking she is an utter stranger.' Among those remarks which are more unequivocally of a general nature, we are sorry to observe that many of the sentiments of this lady betray a degree of intolerance, and a want of liberality, which ought not to escape animadversion. That unhappy portion of the human species, the Negroes in the West Indies, and also the mixed race called Mulattoes, are mentioned as beings with whom to associate is contamination.—Political opinions, likewise, are introduced, without their being necessary to the story.

The incidents in this novel appear, for the most part, to have been designed as representations of common life; and the language is easy and natural: but neither the sentiments nor the characters introduced possess much animation. The share of interest, which the story of Constantia might naturally excite, suffers some diminution from a greater portion of distress being attached to a few untoward circumstances, than they could reasonably be supposed to produce.

Art. 23. *The History of Rinaldo Rinaldini, Captain of Banditti.* Translated from the German of Vulvius. By J. Hinckley, Esq. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

In a preface by the English editor, the reader is informed that the translation of this history was not undertaken by him 'till he had the fullest assurances, private as well as public, of the authenticity of the principal facts.' The adventures, however, independently of the mixture of the supernatural which is plentifully thrown into the narrative, have an appearance of the marvellous. Yet they do not possess the merit of variety, since most of them have great similitude with each other.

Mr. Hinckley recommends the work for the moral instruction which it is capable of communicating; remarking, that it is particularly valuable in illustrating 'that the most commanding of all talents, and those which give an individual the most power either to benefit or injure mankind, are energy and promptitude of mind.' Surely a boastful relation of actions, which are the result of ill-directed energies, is not calculated to serve the cause of morality. The profession of a robber may admit of virtues, but vices are inseparable from his occupation. If a such a man be generous, from what source is his generosity supplied?—The praise of 'greatness of mind,' even such greatness of mind as the profession of a robber admits of being displayed, is ill applied to the hero of this story; who is vain-glorious and fickle, ferocious to his followers, revengeful to his enemies, and an assassin.

Art. 24. *Mystery.* By Francis Lathom, Author of Men and Manners. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. sewed. Symonds. 1800.

The story in this novel, as in most other mysterious productions of the kind, is not limited to sober probabilities. It awakens interest, however, and the incidents are not of the hackneyed kind. Some parts are scarcely within the line of decorum: but the whole is well calculated to exemplify the truth of the reflection contained in the motto to the work: "*How narrow is the path of rectitude, and how much may be lost by the slightest deviation.*" (Dr. Johnson.)

Art. 25. *The Neighbourhood,* a Tale. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. sewed. Black. 1800.

By a variety of coinciding events, an agreeable neighbourhood is here supposed to be gradually collected in a pleasant part of the country, and under the most favourable circumstances. The narrative is rather composed of sketches, than of pictures sufficiently filled up to create permanent interest: but there is in the author's manner a lively vein of humourous description, which will scarcely fail to afford entertainment. The history of Mr. Callico is the least amusing part of the work, and has very little, if any, connection with *The Neighbourhood.*

Art. 26. *Filial Indiscretions,* or the Female Chevalier. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1799.

The principal incident in this novel appears to be taken from Farquhar's comedy of *the Inconstant:* the heroine, in imitation of Oriana, disguises herself, and attends on her Mirabel in the character of his valet. The work is written with considerable spirit: but some parts manifest a glow and licence of description, which will not be suitable to every class of readers. The author has also introduced much political satire, which has less of polish than of strength; and we wish that some of the remarks, and also some of the circumstances related, respecting Ireland, (which is made the scene of one part of the story,) had been omitted. If they be fictitious, they are ill-judged, as they tend to keep alive remembrances which had better be suffered to sink into oblivion; if they be founded in fact, they should not have appeared without the real designations. Such narratives, when advanced otherwise than as specific accusations, have all the effect of general censure; and the mischief of general censure in this case is, that the shade which is thrown over the public character affords a sanctuary to the particular offender.

Art. 27. *The Batavians*; or, Virtue and Valour crowned by Perseverance. From the French of C. Bitaubé, Member of the National Institute of France, and of the R. Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres of Prussia. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. sewed. Robinsons. 1799.

The reader may see an account of the original of this *Prose Epic*, in the Appendix to our xxiid vol. p. 511. We shall therefore now only notice the merits of the version. The translator says, 'he has endeavoured rather to convey the ideas of his author than to pay the same strict attention to his exact expressions as he would have done in ordinary prose; for he could as soon have thought of a close literal version of the "Iliad" or the "Paradise Lost," as of the "Batavians;"——in short, he has throughout aimed at the same style, as from an attentive consideration of the original, he thought the ingenious author would himself have used if he had composed his work in English.'

This method, which requires the original not only to be well understood but to be studied *con amore*, is perhaps the only true mode of imparting the spirit of an original work to a translation.—The following extract will serve as a specimen of the manner in which the present translator has executed his undertaking:

'In the midst of that august assembly, appeared Charles and Philip. Charles, enfeebled by age, and still more by the emotion of his heart, leaned for support on my arm. Seated on a throne more lofty than that where sat the youthful monarch, he descended from it, and with his own hand investing his son with the regal purple.—"My son," said he, "better pleased to see you reign with glory and moderation than to retain the sovereign power in my own possession, I spontaneously resign the sceptre to your hand, before death comes to wrest it from my grasp."—He then gave a short summary of his own exploits: he regretted—tardy unavailing repentance!—he regretted the tyrannic use he had made of his authority—the blood he had spilled—and laid his injunctions on Philip to repair his father's errors, and alleviate the miseries of his subjects.—

'Philip dropped on his knees before his father, who uttered the most affecting prayers for his welfare; while the people, deeply impressed by this heart-touching spectacle, burst into tears. The moment was now come, when, in conformity to an established custom held sacred by our progenitors, Philip was to bind himself by a solemn oath to respect our laws. Then it was that his native pride, his secret designs, betrayed themselves to view. He long remained in hesitation: at length he pronounced the oath--pronounced it in a disdainful tone—but heaven and earth were witnesses to his words.

'Charles, then turning towards that people among whom he had spent the chief portion of his life, and whom he now beheld for the last time—attempted to address to them his parting adieux: but grief choaked his utterance; and the sentiments he wished to express were no otherwise conveyed to the assembly, than by the impassioned language of his eyes and whole countenance. At this moment, the people were wholly absorbed in their regret: sobs and cries alternately echoed through the crowd. Charles, now shaken by encreasing emotion, was seen to totter: I myself was affected to the soul, and could scarce support my trembling frame.—Philip alone envied his father this last testimony of national sensibility: he laboured however to dissemble his resentment; but the scrutinising eye of the public detected the inward workings of his soul, and every heart was frozen with fearful anticipation of futurity.'

ART. 28. *Count di Novini*; or, The Confederate Carthusians. A Neapolitan Tale. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1799.

The commencement of this tale promises but little entertainment, for the ideas seem to be crude and indigested, as if the author had begun his task without any preconcerted plan. After the first half of the first volume, however, the story acquires a more regular and natural appearance; the style of writing becomes superior to that of the common order of novels; and the conduct of the characters is better preserved: though the circumstance of Novini consenting to take the opiate, and his previous proposal to make the first experiment of its effects on a domestic, place his understanding and his principles below their general level. Some of the dialogues are continued to a great length: but they are enlivened with much ingenious and acute argument. In one or two instances, religious subjects are mentioned with too much levity.—A few sentences will afford some idea of the work.

'Then should it be necessary to the success of any undertaking to employ either open force or artifice, you hold it more honourable to adopt the former expedient?

'Undoubtedly, my dear Count. Why does the general suffrage of mankind give the lion the appellation of noble and generous? Only because he disdains to lurk for his prey, and openly rouses his enemy to the attack.'

——'Why should a sagacious individual be condemned for outwitting his private and more powerful enemy, when, for a similar conduct, collective bodies are applauded?

'The reason, my dear friend, is surely too obvious to have escaped your penetration. In the common intercourse of society, who expects to find deception or violence in every person he meets? But

if

if one man were to say to his opponent, "Come, let us try who will conquer in a contest where strength and artifice shall be equally allowable," the defeated party could not justly complain of circumvention. Now, such an agreement virtually ensues in every national contest; consequently stratagems in war are not only lawful but honourable.'

In another conversation, of which human misery is the subject, it is observed that, 'if man were not liable to pain, compassion for his species would be unknown.' To this it might have been answered, that, if man were not liable to pain, he could never become an object of compassion. Nevertheless, as pain is allotted to the state of human nature, to demonstrate its utility is consolatory, and encourages resignation.

The character of Marco is an evident imitation of Sir Hugh Tyrold in Mrs. D'Arblay's Camilla. Tomaso, a faithful domestic, who had acquired a smattering of logic in the service of a philosopher, is the character most recommended by its novelty.—On the whole, this work appears to be the hasty production of a pen which is capable of more finished productions.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 29. *Report from the Clergy of a District in the Diocese of Lincoln,* convened for the Purpose of considering the State of Religion in the several Parishes in the said District, as well as the best Mode of promoting the Belief and Practice of it; and of guarding, as much as possible, against the Dangers arising to the Church and Government of this Kingdom, from the alarming Increase of Profaneness and Irreligion on the one Hand, and the false Doctrines and evil Designs of fanatic and seditious Teachers on the other. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1800.

The matter of this report is well arranged under three heads—*Facts*—*Causes*—*Remedies*. Under the first, it is stated that, by returns made from 79 parishes, it appeared that

The number of inhabitants was - -	15,042
Adults above fourteen years of age - -	11,282
Average number in the ordinary congregations -	4,933
———-——— of communicants at each sacrament	1,808

So that not one in three attended divine service, nor one in six of the adults partook of the sacrament.

It is also stated, among the *Facts* which are made the avowed ground-work of this report, that sick persons seldom sollicit the attendance of their ministers;—that parents and masters are remiss in enforcing the attendance of their children and servants on divine worship; that Sunday schools do not flourish; and that there is an almost total disuse of family prayers, and of reading the scriptures.

The *Causes* of these evils are stated to be—the circulation of profane and seditious writings;—the irregular management of ale-houses;—the custom among farmers of shewing cattle, &c. on Sundays, and other irregularities;—and the inattention of churchwardens to their duty. The examination into the state of separatists has produced a testimony concerning real dissenters, which does them honour, and shews how little the church has to apprehend from them. This part of the report deserves the attention of Government; who are said to have it in contemplation to oppress dissenters with some new and humiliating restrictions: with such restrictions, as, on the event of a peace, would probably operate on Britain as the revocation of the edict of Nantes operated on France. It is said here, and let it quiet every vain alarm, 'that the number of real dissenters is small, and by no means increasing. They are chiefly Baptists or Independents, and a few Quakers. These behave in general with great decency, and manifest no asperity towards the clergy, or other members of the establishment.'

From that class of religionists termed *Methodists*, the fears of the reporters seem chiefly to arise; and their object is to recommend such measures as shall tend to diminish the number of this sect, and reclaim them to the bosom of the church. Methodists are considered in three points of view, viz. as, 1. Those who regularly attend the church-service, but have other places set apart for additional devotion. 2. Those who do not frequent the church at all, but have regular places of worship of their own, in which the sacrament is administered. 3. Those who attend and encourage a wandering tribe of fanatical teachers; who pretend to divine impulses, and are represented as practising *exorcisms*, (we have no idea what this means, nor is any instance given,) and many other impostures.

Of the first of these classes, no complaint is made; and of the second, but little: it is with the third class that the reporters are most offended, and which they wish to restrain, if they cannot repress.

When the reverend reporters take shame to themselves, for a want of proper assiduity and zeal in the discharge of the duties of their office; and recommend, as an antidote against irreligion and fanaticism, peculiar attention to their preaching and living, in order to put to silence the ignorance of foolish men; they obtain our approbation and best wishes:—but when, in addition to their own commendable efforts, they recommend the interference of the Legislature, and advise 'some explanations and amendments of the Toleration Act,' they exceed (in our judgment) the bounds of wisdom and sound policy. Why compliment ignorant fanatics so highly as to persecute them; especially when this severity must fall also on the body of real dissenters, who—it is declared—do not deserve it? It is the severest reflection which the clergy can possibly cast on themselves, to intimate that not all their learning, zeal, and respectability of character will be equal to combat a few illiterate fanatics, unless aided by persecution. "O tell it not in Gath!"

We recommend it to these gentlemen, and to the Legislature, seriously weigh well the consequences of altering the Toleration Act. Let the clergy, who are alarmed at the inroads of Methodists, resist them with Christian zeal and meekness, and above all by the exemplariness of their conduct and conversation: but let them never disgrace their cause by soliciting the aid of the secular arm.

Art. 30. *The Anti-Calvinist;* or, Two plain Discoures on Redemption and Faith. By Robert Fellowes, A.B. Oxon. Author of

a Picture

a Picture of Christian Philosophy, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. or on coarse Paper 6d. White. 1800.

Men have always been partial to religious quackery, and have consequently been the easy dupes of superstition and fanaticism; and till the real age of reason shall arrive, they will not be generally cured of this mental degradation. Till they can be brought to use words only as expressive of ideas, and to reject sounds when no clear sense accompanies them, they will never think with accuracy, nor be open to the convictions of rational argument. Let this, however, be once accomplished, and fanaticism must soon expire; the doctrines on which enthusiasts declaim with so much zeal will be seen to express impossibilities, or to be associations of terms with which nothing in the nature of things can possibly correspond; and the advocate for genuine Christianity will be saved the trouble of proving that what is utterly incongruous and impossible cannot be true. If the expressions of *imputed guilt*, or *imputed righteousness*, in the theological sense, be duly considered, they will be found to attempt the conveyance of an impossible idea, for they denote as great an incongruity as *white blackness*, *long shortness*, or *rotten soundness*. It is like saying that a thing can be and not be at one and the same time. Virtue cannot be affirmed of vice, nor vice of virtue; nor is it possible for sin to be predicated of righteousness, or righteousness of sin. The consequences of one person's righteousness may flow to the unrighteous, as is the case in the mediation of Christ for mankind: but there is an infinite difference between this and the imputation of righteousness:—not to mention that one statement may operate as a stimulus to moral exertion, while the other may give a sort of vague notion that a man may possess an important species of righteousness even while his own character is unrighteous;—a delusion which cannot be too strenuously resisted.

We are pleased to find that Mr. Fellowes has spoken so *plainly* on this subject; and we could wish that his example were followed by every clergyman throughout the kingdom. In this instance, they ought to pursue a fearless conduct; and, despising the censure of heterodoxy which the vulgar and bigoted may cast on them, resolve to give senseless fanaticism no quarter. The mischiefs which it has already effected, especially among the lower classes, are so very considerable, that it should be every where opposed without farther loss of time. Perhaps the only effectual mode of combating it is by shewing repeatedly, till the conviction is felt and impressed on the mind, that its favourite doctrines consist in *an abuse of words* neither justified by reason nor tolerated by scripture. If some, from whom better things might have been expected, have enlisted themselves under its banners, let us not from this circumstance regard it as intitled to any extraordinary indulgence, but let us rather be stimulated to a more firm and undisguised opposition. Were clergymen in the establishment, and the liberally educated among dissenters, to persevere in preaching like Mr. Fellowes, their flocks would be furnished with an answer to the modern cant which is continually ringing in their ears.

'If Christ's righteousness (says Mr. F.) were, as some fondly dream, actually imputed to us, or if his redemption had delivered us from the penalty of sin, without the performance of any good works on our part, then his numerous exhortations to moral goodness, and his solemn injunctions to us to keep the commandments would have been vain and useless. For, why should he have proposed laws for our obedience, if he had known that such obedience were unnecessary; or if his celestial virtues were imputed to us for righteousness?—If any other person pay my debts for me, he certainly releases me from the obligation. Or if any individual can be just for me, he takes upon himself the penalty of my injustice. If Christ have satisfied, by the virtue of his sufferings on the cross, all our moral obligations, if his obedience have superseded their necessity, then they are no longer necessary on our parts. If he, as our redeemer, have transferred his righteousness to us, then we may sin at our pleasure. For where can be the necessity of taking the pains to acquire habits of righteousness ourselves, if another have been righteous in our stead? Thus you see, into what flagrant enormites, into what crimes and impieties we might easily be led, if we once adopted the notion—that Christ's righteousness is imputed to us, or that the effusion of his blood upon the cross hath annulled the necessity of moral observances.'

Many plain and popular arguments, levelled to the lowest capacities, remain to be urged against this doctrine. We recommend the perusal of Mr. F.'s short anti-calvinistical sermons; and we would urge him to persevere in the same strain.—Though we have already extended this article beyond its due proportion, considering the size of the work to which it relates, we must add to it by subjoining a passage from Mr. F.'s preface.

'Pure, sincere, rational, moral and benevolent Christianity I love more than any thing else. It is the constant object of my thoughts; and it has been my solace in many hours when consolation from any other source would have been sought in vain. But I dislike cant, and all the gangrened sperm and abortions of hypocrisy, to whatever purpose they may be applied; and I dislike them most of all when they are employed to tarnish the divine beauty of religion. Religious cant is, of all the objects of detestation, the most detestable: and I am sorry to have occasion to remark, that a miserable, whining, driveling cant, about the mere shadows, the forms, and as it were the excrescences of religion, to the neglect of its weightier matters, and to the destruction of the rationality, the dignity and magnanimity of its character, hath been too much practised by several writers of the present day, from whom better things might have been expected. The fumes of fanaticism seem to have been exhaled and to be exhaling from those in low to those in high places; from the many in that humble region where ignorance dwells and credulity prevails, to some few in the loftier conditions of life, whose minds enlightened by knowledge, and whose hearts expanded by benevolence, ought to have been inaccessible to the cold unsocial spirit of that fanatic fiend, whose very touch hardens the feelings, and prevents the right use of the understanding.'

This passage requires no comment from us.

Art. 31. *Three Discourses on the Lord's Supper.* By S. Parker. Small 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1799.

The first of these discourses considers the design of the sacred institution of the Lord's Supper, with the advantages to be derived from its observance; the second is intended to prove the perpetuity of the ordinance; and the third, to answer objections which may prevent Christians from attending it.

The writer appears to be a fair and candid inquirer, searching for truth, and embracing it with sincerity. His language is generally correct, yet unadorned and simple: but his creed is not that which is usually styled *orthodox*. 'The ordinance of the Lord's Supper,' he remarks, 'is certainly of divine origin, and it is a subject which appears to me to merit more attention from Christians than is generally paid to it. It is an institution which has been most shamefully abused, and culpably neglected.—What a pity is it that they do not observe the simple rules of the gospel, instead of intermixing the base alloy of superstition with the pure gold of heavenly truth! Till Christians try their sentiments and customs by the words and examples of Christ and the apostles, which are the sure touchstone of truth and error, we must expect those things to prevail, which will conceal the beauty of genuine Christianity; and among those things which will have this tendency, is that neglect of the Lord's Supper with which the generality of professing Christians are chargeable.'

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 32. *Medical Cases and Remarks.* Part I. on the good Effects of Salivation, in Jaundice arising from Calculi. Part II. on the free Use of Nitre in Hæmorrhagy. By Thomas Gibbons, M.D. 8vo. pp. 108. 3s. Boards. Murray, &c. 1799.

This small tract is the production of a physician who has retired from practice; and it may be considered, in some degree, as a legacy to those who are now bearing the burden and heat of the day. We should be extremely glad to pass so generous a bequest through our office free of taxation: but the supreme dictates of truth forbid it. We shall, however, treat this very candid and (we dare say) very worthy author as gently as possible. The severity of practice recommended by him, (as we conceive) without sufficient foundation, is the sole occasion of the following strictures.

As Dr. Gibbons professes to have succeeded, by his peculiar method, in cases of jaundice occasioned by gall-stones, we expected to have seen absolute proof of the existence of calculi in the majority of instances which he has related: but we find that, out of all the cases here stated, calculi were passed only in *one*; in the others, the cause was only conjectured from the symptoms. We need not point out to our experienced readers, the fallacy of this mode of proof. Dr. G. supposes that the mercury had dissolved the gall-stones; but whoever has seen this remedy used, in real cases of jaundice arising from gall-stones, must know that the calculi will be passed during the course undissolved, and that the disease will often resist the most powerful action of mercury. Calomel certainly possesses a remarkable power over some morbid conditions of the liver, such as we apprehend had existed in Dr. Gibbons's patients: but it does not appear to exert any particular action on biliary concretions.

It is with regret that we remark some inaccuracy also in the cases relating to the use of nitre in hæmorrhage. The doses given were indeed uncommonly large, and such as few stomachs would bear. The mixture of medicines, in the first case related, must have produced strange elective attractions in the stomach.

℞. Cerus. acetat. gr. iij.
Alum. pulv. gr. v.
Opii gr. j.
Cons. cynosb. q. s. f. bolus statim sumendus, et post horas quinque repetendus.

℞. Kali pp. ʒj.
Succ. limon. ℥ij.
Aquæ distill. ℥vj.
Syr. limon. ℥ſs.
Nitri pulv. ʒij. M. cap. coch. IV. subinde.

In addition to this course, the patient took Ruspini's styptic, by the consent of Dr. G. Perhaps the Chevalier may claim the merit of the cure, though the patient was swallowing the great quantity of a drachm of nitre every two hours.

The publication is closed by a letter from Dr. Drake to Dr. Gibbons, containing some additional facts in support of the power of nitre, largely given, in suppressing hæmorrhage. We are surprized to observe that, in this letter, dated 1799, Dr. Drake only hints at the possibility of deriving advantage from the *digitalis* in such cases. He recommends, also, the exhibition of fox-glove in nauseating doses, which is surely very hazardous practice.

It is far from our intention to convey the slightest censure on the practice employed in the cases here laid before the public, and which appears to have been justified by its success:—but we must caution the young practitioner against the rough use of mercury in similar complaints, on the theory supported by Dr. Gibbons, because we think that his proofs are not conclusive. Other methods, such as warm-bathing, opiates, and external stimulants, are frequently required, in addition to the most successful internal medicines.

Art. 33. *Medical Remarks on Tea, Coffee, Tobacco, and Snuff;* likewise Beer, Ales, Wines, and Spirituous Liquors, also Observations on Intoxication; with an Appendix, containing Directions for preserving Health and attaining long Life. The whole collected from the best Authorities. By E. Taylor. 8vo. pp. 39. 9d. Printed at Huddersfield. 1799.

Addison tells us, in the Spectator, that there are jests which are only passable in a certain part of the town, or in particular situations: as over a bottle, or when the wind is in the north-east. The pamphlet before us, we presume, is one of these indigenous productions: it may be very useful at Huddersfield, and may extend its influence to some of the sheep-cotes and farms in the neighbourhood:

but it cannot be of any importance in this metropolis, where the author's opinions will be found to be never new, and often inaccurate.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 34. *Observations on the Produce of the Income Tax*, and on its Proportion to the whole Income of Great Britain. A new and corrected Edition, with considerable Additions respecting the Extent, Commerce, Population, Division of Income, and Capital of this Kingdom. By the Rev. H. Beeke, B.D. 8vo. pp. 185. 3s. 6d. sewed. Wright. 1800.

We gave some account of the first edition of this pamphlet in M. R. vol. xxix, N.S. p. 351. It was then published only as a *first part*: but the ingenious author informs us that he has relinquished the design of writing a *second part*, and that the observations on several topics, which he intended for the continuation of his plan, he has now connected progressively with the original work. He has thus enlarged its bulk, and also its value; for, though these pages may contain, as Mr. Beeke styles them, 'only approximations to true statements,' his inquiries and calculations may help us to elicit the truth, and to account for disappointment without accusing individuals of having made false returns.

Mr. B. is far from a croaking politician; yet, in opposition to all the Minister's statements, he contends that the Income Tax cannot produce more than 7,000,000l.* 'Very few (says he) of those who turn their thoughts to this subject have duly considered the effect of the scale of abatement.'

Mr. Beeke takes much pains to ascertain the value of our exports, of which he exhibits a table; and he ventures to consider the increased amount of our produce and manufactures, as an evidence of our greatly augmented population. To this we cannot subscribe: it is a very fallacious mode of estimating the population of a country; and we do not therefore admit his conclusion, that 'our population in England and Wales only is at present increasing at the rate of 120,000 annually, deducting for military and sea-faring loss ten or fifteen thousand a-year.'

In the first edition of this pamphlet, the author estimated our commercial and manufacturing income at 1,500,000l. more than in this second edition; where the statement is now as follows:

'Gain by exporting British produce and manufactures has been reckoned at about - - -	£. 4,000,000
'The gain by exporting foreign merchandise, at -	800,000
'And by importations, at - -	3,000,000
'And for the last article and contingent omissions -	200,000
'Total	£. 8,000,000'

A considerable deduction is also made from the income arising from shipping.

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* Though Mr. B. states the produce of the tax a million short of the Minister's expectations, he does not think that the whole income of the nation has been stated too high. Moreover, he believes that nothing short of confusion can prevent its *future* increase.

The additions to this new impression are interesting and important. Mr. Beeke has taken great pains with those subjects which he professes to discuss; and his ideas, while they tend to correct extravagant expectations respecting the amount of the Income Tax, are calculated to keep up the spirit of Britons, by shewing them the true causes of their power and wealth. We shall subjoin the author's *Short Statement* of the present value of the capital of Great Britain, as given in the postscript:

' PRIVATE PROPERTY.

' *Productive of Income.*

1. Cultivated lands, South Britain 600,000,000l. North Britain, 120,000,000l. - -	£. 720,000,000
2. Tithes, in South Britain only, after deductions for the personal service required on account of the part possessed by the clergy - - -	75,000,000
3. Houses not included in the rent of lands -	200,000,000
4. Mines, canals, timber, tolls, &c. &c. - -	100.000,000
5. Present value of income from the public debt -	300,000,000
6. Farming capital, equal at present to not less, on an average, than 5 clear rents, viz. pasture 2 to 3, arable 5 to 7 rents - -	125,000,000
7. Home trade - - - -	120,000,000
8. Foreign trade and shipping - - -	80,000,000
	1,720,000,000

' *Unproductive of Income.*

9. Waste lands, after excluding all such as are incapable of any improvement adequate to the expense; and also allowing for incidental diminution of the value of adjacent lands, in case of their loss of the benefit of pasture, &c. about 10,000,000 acres - - -	30,000.000
10. Household furniture - - -	160,000,000
11. Plate, jewels, and all other useful and ornamental articles not considered as household furniture -	50,000,000
12. Specie, about - - -	40,000,000
Unproductive private property	280,000,000
Productive private property	1,720,000,000
Total - -	2,000,000,000

' PUBLIC PROPERTY.

The value of that part of the permanent income of the nation which is applicable to the annual expenditure, about - - -	160,000,000
The value of that part which is appropriated to extinguish the public debt, about - -	90,000,000

Value

Value of shipping, arsenals, national buildings, stores, credits, and all other assets, after deducting all unfunded debt - -	15,000,00
Value of all provincial and municipal buildings, &c. &c. as churches, hospitals, bridges, prisons, &c. &c. with the effects belonging to them -	25,000,00

'N. B. A good deal of public has been already estimated jointl with the private property; such as the crown lands, corporate incomes &c. &c. But in so general a statement as this, a more accurat analysis appears to be unnecessary.'

According to this table, our ruin cannot be so near as some melancholy prophets have predicted.

Art. 35. *Considerations on the present high Price of Corn*, with Proposition for the effectual Regulation of the Prices of all th Requisites of Life; addressed to every Class of Society, by Homo 8vo. 1s. Printed at Norwich; London, Scatcherd, &c.

Homo advises his countrymen to petition, on the approaching meeting of Parliament, for an act to fix the *maximum* price of bread corn; (he recommends this to be four guineas per quarter;) and whenever wheat shall attain this price, to empower certain persons to ascertain the stock in hand; in order that importation may be encouraged, to the amount of the necessity. We give this gentleman full credit for benevolence of intention: but we doubt whether, under the circumstances of the country*, his advice could with prudence and sound policy be adopted. It would be unjust to fetter agriculture with a maximum; unless all those articles, for which the farmer must exchange his produce, were also saddled with a maximum. It may not, moreover, be fair, from temporary circumstances, and from a singular coincidence of events, to argue in favour of such a measure as a general regulation. We had better have recourse to the most liberal encouragement of importation, in order to lower the present high price of grain, than to make a law compelling the farmer to bring his commodity to market, and sell it at a fixed price (say four guineas at most per quarter); when he, for his sugar, soap, candles, &c. shall be obliged to give a price continually advancing. All barter should be free, and trade suffered to find its own level. Arbitrary enactments will only do mischief. We should apply other remedies to the evils of which the nation most justly complains.

Art. 36. *Dearness not Scarcity*, its Cause and Remedy. By a Commercial Man.—Humbly addressed to the Consideration of his Majesty's Ministers. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

In the political as in the natural world, great effects rarely proceed from the operation of one solitary cause; yet nothing is more common, with philosophers and politicians, than to attempt the solution of all difficulties by the assumption of one favourite

principle,

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* Especially the enormous magnitude of the public debt, which must sink the comparative value of money.

ciple. The present pamphlet is a case in point. From a know-
of the nature of commercial and banking accommodation, the
er would account for the present unexampled dearness of the
les of the first necessity, without allowing the existence of *scarcity*.
Vhat is scarcity? When the supply of an article is found for a
iderable time to be unequal to the demand for it, we say that it
arce in the market. When there are many to buy and few to
, a want or scarcity is experienced; and when this is felt, the
imodity required will advance in price. *Scarcity* and *dearness*, then,
ugh not absolutely synonimous terms, imply one another When
e things, however, become subjects of general complaint, an evil
i complicated kind exists. To the present dearness of provisions,
ral causes contribute; one may be, and probably is, as here sug-
ted, the plenty of the circulating medium, and the facility of
ey (or rather paper) accommodation, by which farmers as well
raders are tempted to speculate: but this alone would not pro-
e the effect of which we complain. The state of Europe, and
singular magnitude of our naval establishments, have occa-
ed us to feel, in a peculiar degree, every deficiency of crop.
en we stand in need of more than usual, and produce less than
al, it requires no ghost to predict the consequence. An artificial
ity of money may produce dearness, without there being an
olute famine threatening want: but no plenty of money, nor
king accommodation, could operate, if there were a great
manifest abundance The quantity produced is not found to be
pletely adequate to all our wants and exigencies; and this
overy has tempted men, in all the departments of trade, to spe-
ate to the injury of the public.

. 37. *The Case of the Farmers*, at the present important Crisis,
stated by a Hertfordshire Farmer. 8vo. 6d. Law. 1800.
'Vain declamation all." To hear a farmer *now* complaining of the
essed case of himself and brethren must excite indignation, instead
ompassion. Whether the farmers' leases be long or short, they
all getting money. Every thing is at present in their favour;
, according to the old saying, *Let them laugh that win.*—We
ected from this writer a vindication of the farmers, against the
rge of their being the cause of the present exorbitant price of
visions: but we find no such thing. He says that they are them-
es so '*oppressed*,' that they should be indulged with leases for a
ger term than 21 years.

BOTANY.

. 38. *The Lady's and Gentleman's Botanical Pocket-Book*, adapted
o Withering's Arrangement of British Plants. Intended to facili-
ate and promote the Study of indigenous Botany. By Wm.
Iavor, LL.D. 12mo. 3s. Vernor and Hood.
he indefatigable Dr. Mavor has published this work avowedly for
use of students; and we should be sorry to undervalue any thing
is written with the intention of increasing the boundaries of a

science so elegant and amusing as botany. He has certainly used the title of *Botanical Pocket Book* with more propriety than Professor Hoffman, who so calls his *Flora Germanica;* of which a second edition has just appeared. Dr. Mavor gives a figure of the parts of fructification, illustrated by the white lily, (why not choose a plant with a nectary?) and another plate of the Linnéan classes.

The work itself contains only a slight account of every class, with the numbers of orders and genera belonging to it, followed by the Latin and English names of each genus; and a blank space is left, to enable the student to insert the several species when he finds them.

As Dr. Mavor says that the utility of his plan is incontestable, we shall not attempt to contest it, but content ourselves with expressing our earnest hopes that it may be found so.

DRAMATIC.

Art. 39. *Theodora; or, the Spanish Daughter:* a Tragedy. By Lady Burrell. 8vo. pp. 100. 3s. 6d. sewed. Leigh and Sotheby. 1800.

Literary judges, like the dispensers of law, have their integrity sometimes severely tried. Their secret wishes may be excited to exculpate, while the rigor of justice forces them to condemn. Our inclination leads us, in the present instance, strongly to espouse the cause of an amiable writer, whom we have had the satisfaction of praising for compositions of a lighter kind: but we must observe, with whatever regret, that she has not properly consulted her strength in attempting this high walk of poetry. To succeed in tragedy requires, perhaps, a turn of mind not compatible with the elegant softness of the female character. The bard of terror must be "made of sterner stuff." In this point of view, however, the fair writer has chosen her *subject* very judiciously, as the distresses of her heroine arise from disappointed love, and from her struggles between delicacy and filial affection.—We shall select the following passages as specimens of the dialogue; which is in general easy and correct, though not elevated.

'How can I amuse her?
This mansion, spacious and magnificent,
That never fail'd to strike the traveller,
Obtains no praise from Theodora's tongue.
When she appears to look upon the woods,
(Which skirt yon ample plain) I can perceive
Her mind is not directed by her eyes.
She gazes with a strange and absent air,
Nor seems to see the things those eyes are fix'd on.
And if by chance she turns towards the sea,
She starts, averts her head, and from her cheek
The quick blood fades, and leaves her like the form
Of Medicean Venus, rooted there,
And beautiful, tho' wanting animation.'

'THEODORA.

'Oh! lead me to some quiet verdant bank
Which overlooks the silver stream, among

Whose ripling waves the water lily shews
Her purple leaves; where rushes love to grow,
And bow their rustling heads to Zephyr's wing;
There, like a willow rooted to the ground,
And ever bending o'er the murmuring brook,
I may increase the current with my tears;
Dimpling the surface by those messengers
Of secret sorrow, which in falling there,
Mix'd with the element whom best they love,
May find an everlasting grave. Oh Heaven!
Why cannot I with equal ease arrive
At such a peaceful period to my woes;
Cast off a Being irksome to itself,
Invoke oblivion, and obtain repose?'

Plagiarisms are frequently discoverable in this drama; such as
'Who rules the thunder and directs the storm.'—
'Yet Fortune frown'd upon his noble birth.'—
'Perdition catch the author.'—

——— 'Yet a secret grief
'Has like a worm conceal'd within a rose
Gnaw'd at thy heart, and fed upon thy bloom.'

Worse than these, however, are some attempts to paint or describe Nature without attending to or studying Nature; thus at p. 4. 'Flowers of unnumbered tints' are represented as growing under trees which exclude the rays of the sun;—and a still greater mistake occurs at p. 21. where the moon is said to be so much in her wane as 'to afford but half her light,' and yet is described as appearing in the dusky gloom of the evening.

In the character of Theodora, we discover many traits of refinement and delicacy which probably would have escaped a male-writer: but beauties of this kind are better adapted to the closet than to the stage.. Voltaire has observed justly of the latter, that plays must in some measure resemble scene-painting, and that "*quelquefois il vaut mieux frapper fort que frapper juste.*"

Art. 40. *Maximian; a Tragedy: taken from Corneille.* By Lady Burrell. 8vo. pp. 98. 3s. 6d. sewed. Leigh and Sotheby. 1800.

This play is not to be considered as a simple translation from Corneille, though it is moulded on his original. In our opinion, it would require a much more nervous strain of poetry than that which is possessed by this fair author, to reconcile the *longueurs* of the French stage to English readers. Of all our dramatists, Rowe has perhaps approached nearest to the French school, and several of his plays continue to be represented: but they are supported by the merit of some happy passages, and by the aid which he drew from Shakspeare, and some of our then neglected writers. We possess a beautiful fragment by Gray, in the style of Racine; yet perhaps we admire it the more because it is incomplete. A single act may be read with pleasure, when the attention would be fatigued by going through four others.—Ease and grace in writing are not sufficient qualifications for a task so arduous as the present. The strength of a Parnassian hero is requisite here; and his Pegasus, instead of a lady's pad, must be a charger of the first vigour and spirit

The language of Lady Burrell is generally correct, but it wants the fire and force of the French Dramatist. We have remarked also some oversights respecting the *costume.* Thus, at the opening of the play, we are told that the *clock strikes ten*, a circumstance which certainly never occurred in antient Rome; and in p. 3. Maximian *looks at his watch*, though no such instrument existed at that time. These are trifles: but our theatrical exhibitions are so much more correct than formerly, that even mistakes like these demand notice.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 41. *Memoirs of Hyppolite Clairon*, the celebrated French Actress: with Reflections upon the Dramatic Art: written by Herself. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. sewed. Robinsons. 1800.

Of these memoirs we have already given our opinion, with considerable extracts, when we examined them in the original *. We shall now therefore point our attention chiefly to the merits of the translation.

We can perceive that the person, whether male or female, who has been at the trouble of transfusing into our language the contents of this spirited and entertaining work, has read and reflected more than he, or she, has written. A preface is added by the translator; which, though little more than an argument to the book, contains some judicious remarks on the drama and on human life: but it is not well composed, and is manifestly the production of a person who is unused to the press. The promiscuous use of the numerical *one*, and the Gallic *pronoun* one, is more frequent than we have seen it elsewhere. Preface, p. xxi. 'After twenty years of brilliant success, *one* has a right to give advice as a lesson. She was *one* of the most illustrious actresses of her time.'—In the text, we have *lay* for *lie*; refrain laughing, for refrain *from* laughing; 'I *was ceased* to be disturbed altogether,' for – it ceased to disturb me. The inaccuracy of style, which most frequently occurs in this translation, is the omission of *which*, and *that*, as a pronoun and a conjunction. The epithet *harmonious* is used for *melodious*, more than once. Way*s* for way. Dubellay, for Dubell*oy*.

We cannot quite accord with Mademoiselle Clairon herself, when she says, p. 165. 'I agree that (the) comic-opera and the ballet absorb every thing else; and that, at present, performers *in that line* are the most essential part of the theatrical company. The talents required for such situations are *in the reach of every one*, whatever may be their educations.' Surely a *voice* must be given by nature:—it may be improved, but not acquired; nor is the necessary knowlege of music attainable by singers of mean capacities.

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* See vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 557; and vol. xxviii. p. 519.

It is but justice to allow that the style of the translator improves as the work advances; so much, that in the second volume we have scarcely any material inaccuracies to censure,—except the frequent use of *learn* for *teach*; and, on the whole, we may venture to assure the English reader, that he will find much entertainment in these memoirs.

Art. 42. *An Account of Two Charity Schools for the Education of Girls:* and of a Female Friendly Society in York: interspersed with Reflections on Charity Schools and Friendly Societies in general. By Catharine Cappe. 8vo. 3s. Johnson. 1800.

The schools of which this pamphlet gives an account are the Spinning and the Grey coat schools, in the city of York. The origin of the spinning school, and the whole progress of its establishment, concur in an eminent degree to prove what useful parts of charity are direction and good management.

Towards the close of the year 1782, two ladies, 'painfully impressed by the behaviour of a set of children employed in a hemp manufactory in their neighbourhood, determined to try if something could not be done to mend their condition. On the 7th of November, having been encouraged by some donations and subscriptions from a few particular friends to whom they had communicated their design, twenty-two young girls were entered with a mistress who was engaged to teach them to read, knit, and sew, in the evening after they had finished their work in the manufactory.' Other ladies soon joined, and took an active part in forwarding these charitable purposes: but it was not till May 1784 that the plan of establishing a spinning school was fully digested; when an offer was made to the parents, of allowing wages to the children equal to those which they earned in the hemp manufactory. This was accepted by most of them, and the children were immediately taken under the protection of the ladies.

The visible good effects of the plan of management, adopted for the spinning school, occasioned an application to be made to the ladies who patronised it, from the governors of the Grey coat school, requesting their advice and assistance in reforming that institution; and afterward, at the farther request of the governors, the ladies undertook the whole conduct and superintendence of the Grey coat school: setting an example of active charity which is well worthy of being imitated.

The different regulations, with an account of every part of the disbursements, and the whole economy of the management, are explained in this pamphlet; and the expences of the former are compared with those of the improved plan.—An account is also given of every particular respecting the plan and management of a Female Friendly Society at York.

This publication is well calculated to invite and encourage the more opulent members of the community, to examine into and take a share of the direction of our public charitable institutions. If the sale of it should be more than sufficient to defray the charges of printing, &c. the benevolent writer purposes that the profits shall be applied towards a fund for the benefit of the members of the Female Friendly Society, of which she has given an account.

Art. 43. *The Wrongs of Unterwalden.* Originally published in Sept. 1798. Translated by the Rev. Weeden Butler, M. A. of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. 8vo. 2s. Cawthorn. 1799.

This pamphlet gives not a general history of the French attack on the liberties of Swisserland, under the insidious pretence of union and alliance, but a declamatory account of the contest between the Republican troops under Gen. Schawenburg, and the cantons of Schwitz, Uri, and Unterwalden; particularly the latter; 1600 of whose valiant sons, after having fought for thirteen hours against a body of 16,000 Republican troops, were at length obliged to yield to such superior numbers, and to take refuge in the mountains. The enormities perpetrated by the French, after the defeat of this little army of heroes, are here described with a very warm pencil; a pencil better fitted perhaps to give strong colouring than a just likeness. At all events, the picture is such as must interest every friend to humanity and freedom, and extort applause and sympathy for the brave inhabitants of Unterwalden.

Art. 44. *St. Godwin:* a Tale of the Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Century. By Count Reginald De St. Leon. 12mo. pp. 235. 3s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

"Blessed (say we) be the man who invented laughing." Sancho was never more relieved by *sleep* than we, who are obliged to wade through a mass of dulness, are by a *hearty laugh;* we hope, therefore, that Mr. Godwin will not be offended, if we confess that we have been amused by this burlesque on his St. Leon. (See page 23 of the last Review.) It is written with some humour and pleasantry; and it glances not only at the incongruities of St. Leon, but also at the singular opinions delivered by the Author in his book on "Political Justice," and in other publications.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot discover any ground for the dissatisfaction apparent in the letter of our respectable correspondent at Troston. With regard to the extent of the article in question, and to the degree of praise contained in it, we shall abide by our judgment and taste; leaving to others the free exercise of their capacities in these respects: *hanc veniam petimus damusque vicissim.* The concluding monitory remarks were not designed to convey any imputation in the present instance, for we had no private information on the subject to warrant any censure: but they were meant purely as cautionary, and to call to remembrance the consequences of injudicious patronage in former cases. —The trifling mis statement of a christian name we shall correct in our notices of errata.

A Reply to the Speech of the Speaker of the Irish House of Commons, in February last, is received: but the subject is now *out of time.*

Lieutenant Foster's Translation of the King of Prussia's Military Instructions was mentioned in our 23d vol. N. S. p. 327.

☞ Review for September, p. 11. l. 14. put a comma after '*Scio.*' P. 40. l. 8. from bott. for 'persue,' r. *peruse.* P. 56. l. 6. for 'George,' r. *Robert.* P. 112. l. 7. for 'were,' r. *was.*

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1800.

Art. I. *An Account of an Embassy to the Court of the Teshoo (Tisu) Lama in Tibet:* containing a Narrative of a Journey through Budtan, and Part of Tibet; by Captain Samuel Turner. To which are added, Views taken on the Spot, by Lieut. Samuel Davis; and Observations botanical, mineralogical, and medical, by Mr. Robert Saunders. 4to. pp. 500. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

In the year 1772, the Rajah of Budtan, descending from the lofty mountains which constitute his domains, over-ran with little opposition the district of Cûs-behar, a tributary dependence on the Suba of Bengal. The English government detached a military force, which repelled the invaders; and was preparing to carry its arms into the Budtan territory, when, at the intercession of the Tisu Lama, a peace was concluded with the Rajah, and the former boundaries were restored. Mr. Hastings judged the opportunity favourable for the establishment of a commercial intercourse between the inhabitants of Bengal and their northern neighbours; and for ascertaining the actual state of countries hitherto unexplored by Europeans; excepting where they had been marked by the wandering footsteps of the Romish missionaries, whose habits and views seldom accredited the veracity of their narratives. Mr. Bogle was accordingly deputed on an embassy to the Tisu Lama; he reached Deseripghè in October 1774; and after having resided there and at Tisulumbu till March 1775, he returned to Bengal: but his death, soon after his return, deprived the world of the information which he had acquired during his residence in Tibet.

Among the tribes which constitute the religious votaries of the Lamas (Pontiffs) of Tibet, are numbered the Manchu Tartars, whose chiefs fill the throne of China. When the late Emperor, Kienlong, had almost attained his seventieth year, the Tisu Lama was earnestly solicited to honour that anniversary with his presence. Accordingly, the Lama began his journey from

Tisulumbu in July 1779; in 46 days, he reached Duchu, seated on the banks of a river of the same name; 21 days more brought him to Thuctaring; 19 days afterward, he reached Cumbu, a populous city, where stands, near a small river, a large and famous Putala, or temple of public worship (Buddhala, the mansion of Buddha). Here the snow prevented his farther progress, and four months elapsed before he resumed his journey. Seven days from Cumbu, lay Tumdatolu, in the province of Alasia; and in nine more the Lama arrived at Nisar, a very large city. Seventy days more, during which several considerable places are mentioned as lying in the route, brought him to Singding, whither the Emperor had repaired to receive him; and, after having loaded with presents the venerable head of the faith, he conducted him in great state to a magnificent mansion allotted for his reception in the metropolis, Pechin. His journey occupied a period of twelve months; and the roads were crowded with votaries, who prostrated themselves and their offerings at the feet of Tisu Lama.—About a month after his arrival in the capital of China, he was seized with the small-pox, which terminated his days in July 1780, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the Chinese physicians, and the despair of their sovereign. His character yet stands in the highest estimation with his subjects; and by Mr. Bogle he was represented as humane, benevolent, and comparatively well informed. A temple of pure gold, large enough to contain the coffin, was prepared by the Emperor's orders; which, with his remains, was conveyed to Tisulumbu, where they still attract the devotion of the Tartar tribes.

An account of these events had scarcely reached Calcutta, before it was succeeded by intelligence of the re-appearance of the Lama in Tibet: 'The soul of the late Lama, according to the doctrines of their faith, having passed into, and animated the body of an infant, who, on the discovery of his identity, by such testimonies as their religion prescribes, was acknowleged and proclaimed by the same title and appellation as his predecessor.' Governor Hastings, on the receipt of these accounts, proposed to the Board to send a second deputation to Tibet; and Captain Turner was accordingly nominated for this service in January 1783.

From the district of Cusbehar to the foot of the Budtan mountains, extends a plain, 'about 30 miles in breadth, choked, rather than clothed, with the most luxuriant vegetation. The exhalations necessarily arising from the multitude of springs, which the vicinity of the mountains produces, are collected and confined by almost impervious woods, and generate an atmosphere through which no traveller ever passed with impunity.'

Situated near the extremity of this plain, lay Chichacatta, which our travellers reached on the 11th May 1783. Eight miles farther, began the assemblage of mountains which constitute the territory of Budtan, distinguished by the general appellation of Tangustan, and giving the name of Tangun to a breed of horses found only there. 'They are distinguished in colour by a general tendency to piebald; about 13 hands in height, short bodies, clean limbed, and, though deep in the chest, yet extremely active.'—After having commenced the ascent of the mountains, the first place which presents itself is Buxidwar, consisting of ten or twelve houses, placed on a table of levelled rock, surrounded on three sides by lofty mountains, and open only to the south, which affords a narrow prospect of Bengal. Here the common beverage of the Budtias was presented; Chong, a slightly acid and spirituous liquor, extemporaneously prepared by the infusion of a mass of grain in a state of fermentation; and Arra, an ardent spirit obtained from Chong by distillation. Already, the vegetable productions of Bengal required cultivation; and the appearance of raspberry bushes indicated a change of climate.—Continuing their ascent, surrounded by lofty mountains, covered to their summits with trees clothed in moss, the travellers reached Gygugu, 12 miles from Buxidwar; it consisted of five or six houses, supported on bambu props. Thirteen miles from Gygugu, and in a still more elevated situation, is Murichom, consisting of about 20 houses, built of stone, with clay as a cement; raspberries, strawberries, peaches, and oranges, were the spontaneous productions of the hills; and that species of cinnamon, the leaves of which, under the denomination of Tizpat, are used throughout Hindustan for culinary purposes. Here the travellers fell in with the Tehin-chu, foaming at the bottom of high mountains, which frequently alter its course; and sometimes rushing over stupendous precipices. Their route retraced its course as far as the capital of Budtan.

Pursuing their ascent, they crossed a bridge composed of chains, which extended over the Tehinchu, and reached Chuca, 18 miles distant from Murichom. 'On the five chains that support the platform, are placed several layers of strong coarse mats of bambu, loosely put down, so as to play with the swing of the bridge; and a fence on each side, of the same materials, contributes to the security of the passenger.' The castle of Chuca, a large square building on elevated ground, afforded them a lodging for the evening. From Chuca, the country opens, and presents to view many well cultivated fields and distant villages. Punuga lies ten miles distant: the mountains which environ it are covered with pine and fir; and there

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As the embassy approached the capital, the country became more populous and better cultivated; the Tehinchu ran with less rapidity, watering a most beautiful valley, in which not a spot of land was unemployed. Waugoca lay ten miles from Nomnu, and beyond it our travellers entered the vale of Tasisudon, the residence of the Budtan Rajah. They were conducted to a house to the northward of the palace, and at no great distance from it, situated on an eminence high above the river, which runs on the other side of a road that winds round the base of a hill.

The 3d of June was fixed for receiving the English ambassador. Capt. T. says:

> ‘ The officers accompanied us through sevesal passages, and up a number of lofty ladders, which connect the different floors, till at length we arrived at the elevated station occupied by the Rajah, near the summit of the citadel. After a short pause upon the landing place, the door was thrown open, and we were ushered into a small but well proportioned room, having on the west side an arched balcony with sliding curtains, being the only aperture for the admission of light, immediately opposite to the door by which we entered, and before which a skreen projected nearly one third of the breadth of the room. The remaining space on the wall, beyond the skreen, was decorated with portraits, wrought in silk, of some champions of their faith, as stiff and formal as any heroes that ever appeared in tapestry. The walls of the room were coloured with blue, and the arches of the balcony, pillars, doors, &c. were painted with vermilion, and ornamented with gilding. The Rajah was habited in a deep garnet-coloured cloth, and sat cross-legged upon a pile of cushions, in the remote corner of the room, with the balcony upon his right hand; upon his left stood a cabinet of diminutive idols, and a variety of consecrated trinkets; close upon his right was placed an escrutoire, for the deposit of papers, required to be at hand; and before him was a small painted bench, to place his tea cup on, and answering all the other purposes of a table. We each advanced, presenting one after the other, a white silk scarf, or long narrow piece of pelong, fringed

at

th ends (as is the custom in these countries) to the Rajah, who,
ing his seat all the time, took them in his hand, and passed them
attendant.'

fore the conclusion of the visit, tea was produced. 'We
d,' says the author, 'this liquor extremely unlike what we
been used to drink under the same name; it was a com-
d of water, flour, butter, salt, and bohea tea, with some
r astringent articles, all boiled, beat up, and intimately
ded together.' The Rajah took frequent occasion of con-
ng with the travellers, whom he treated with much urba-
He invited them to dine with him; "my food, (said
consists of the simplest articles; grain, roots, and fruits.
ver eat of any thing that has had breath; for so I should be
ndirect cause of putting an end to the existence of animal
which by our religion is strictly forbidden." We presume
this prohibition only extends to the priesthood; possibly
to the supreme pontiffs; for we find meat, both dressed
raw, every where eaten in Budtan and Tibet. The Ra-
sentiments breathed a spirit of humanity highly honourable
eir religious faith. "Bees, (he said,) by my direction,
never disturbed: their labour is employed for the benefit of
community, in laying up a stock, which serves to rear their
ng, and as a resource when they cease to find food abroad.
re I, availing myself of superior power, to deprive them of
store, accumulated for their future support, how could I
ect to enjoy unmolested, that of which I am myself pos-
ed?" The Gylongs or priests are enjoined celibacy: fifteen
dred of them lodged in the palace, and no female was al-
ed to sleep within the walls.

The Budteas have invariably black hair, which it is their fashion
ut close to the head. The eye is a very remarkable feature of
face: small, black, with long pointed corners, as though stretched
extended by artificial means. Their eye-lashes are so thin as to
carcely perceptible; and the eyebrow is but lightly shaded. Be-
the eyes, is the broadest part of the face, which is rather flat,
narrows from the cheekbones to the chin; a character of coun-
nce appearing first to take its rise amongst the Tartar tribes, but
far more strongly marked in the Chinese. Their skins are re-
ably smooth, and most of them arrive at a very advanced age,
e they can boast even the earliest rudiments of a beard.'

peaking of the Gylongs, 'I know not, (says the author,)
re *in the world* an equal number of men would be met with,
traight, so well-proportioned, and so stout. I never beheld
ore florid picture of health than was exhibited in the com-
ion of the mountaineers; the women in particular, with
r jet black hair, and clear, brisk, black eyes, had a ruddi-

ness which the most florid English rustic would in vain attempt to rival.'

A narrow slip of ground, three or four miles in length, and in its widest part not exceeding one mile in breadth, was chosen for the situation of the capital. There is no town, nor indeed any house, except that allotted for the ambassador, within a mile of the palace: but a few clusters of houses are distributed in different parts among the fields.

> 'The castle or palace of Tasisudon stands near the centre of the valley, and is a building of a quadrangular form. The length of the front exceeds that of the sides by one third: the walls are lofty, and as I conjecture upwards of 30 feet high, and they are sloped a little from the foundation to the top: above the middle space, is a row of projecting balconies, to each of which are curtains made of black hair, which are always drawn at night: below, the walls are pierced with very small windows. Passing through a spacious gateway, we came opposite to the central square building, which I must call the citadel: and this is the habitation of the Rajah. It is a very lofty building, being no less than seven stories high, each from 15 to 18 feet; it is covered over with a roof of a low pitch, composed of fir timbers, sheathed with boards of deal, which project on each side a great way beyond the walls; from the centre, there rises a square piece of masonry, which supports a canopy of copper richly gilt; and this is supposed to be immediately over the great idol, Mahamuni (the great anchoret, Buddha). Lam Rimbocha, the present Diva Rajah (celestial king, a title by which the Rajahs of Budtan are distinguished,) lives upon the fourth floor from the ground; above that there are two other stories; and the seventh ladder leads to the temple of Mahamuni, which is covered with the gilded canopy.'

Near to every religious edifice, a small square temple containing an image is seen, placed like a centinel on the road side. They have one small doorway, which always remains closed; and travellers uncover their heads, and dismount from their horses, as they pass. The mystic words "Oom mauni paimi oom" are frequently engraven on rocks, in large and deep characters; and sometimes Captain Turner saw them on the sides of hills, yet could never obtain any satisfactory explanation of them. The word which begins and ends this formula is the sacred monosyllable composed of the initials of the Hindu trinity; the two intermediate words have probably been imperfectly stated by the author, who had no acquaintance with the language. With a very slight mutation of letters, the sentence may either signify, "I adore the feet of the Muni (Buddha);" or "I am absorbed in contemplating (the mystic syllable) oom."

During Captain Turner's stay, a bloodless insurrection shook the throne of Budtan: but it was quelled by exertions almost as feeble as those which supported it. 'Every kind of discipline and order is totally disregarded in their mode of warfare; stratagem is more practised than open assault: they engage in general as marksmen, and wait their opportunity to fire unobserved. Both parties are so careful to conceal themselves, that seldom any thing is visible but the top of a tufted helmet, or the end of a bow.' Yet poisoned arrows are in the list of their weapons: but the effect of this vegetable poison was less fatal than their terror represented it.

'A few fruits are found here in great perfection; their oranges are exquisite, their peaches and apricots very good; so also is the pomegranate; walnuts cannot possibly be better. Yet here Naturé does every thing; it remains only for them to extend their hands, and partake of what she offers. I have always observed their corn fields very neatly dressed; but in this the men can claim but little merit, for by far the greatest labour falls upon the fair sex; they plant, they weed, and to them, eventually, the task falls, of applying the sickle and the flail.'

Among other co-incidences with the Hindus, may be mentioned the veneration which the Budteas profess for the lotus; (*nymphea nilotica*;) for monkeys; and the celebration of the Dasohera and Divali, in honour of the goddesses Durga and Cali. The order of Gylongs is very numerous, notwithstanding the severity of the discipline; since every family consisting of more than four boys is obliged to contribute one of them to this order.. The officers of state being usually selected from this number, it is encouraged by ambition as well as by fanaticism. 'In fact, the higher ranks of men, entirely engrossed by political or ecclesiastical duties, leave to the husbandman and labourer, to those who till the fields and live by their industry, the exclusive charge of propagating the species.'

On the 8th of September 1783, the travellers left Tasisudon, after a residence of three months, to prosecute their journey to the court of Tisu Lama. Lofty mountains still impeded their progress; and at Paibesa, they appeared as if fashioned into hanging gardens. Paro is 21 miles from Tasisudon, and the seat of a viceroy; it stands in a valley larger than that of the capital, and intersected by the Pa-chu; it boasts the only market in Budtan, and is famous for the manufacture of gods and forging of arms. Ducajung, nine miles farther, is a fortress built on the crown of a low rocky hill. Eleven miles beyond it, is Sana, the last village in Budtan, consisting of ten houses; and here the thermometer, which at Tasisudon never was lower than 60°, fell to 46°. The Pachu rolled its waters at the foot of the mountains; and on the opposite bank grazed a herd of chowry tailed cattle, called "yae" by the Tartars.

The only essential difference between the yac and an English bull consists in the thick coat of long hair, which covers the former. The tail is composed of a prodigious quantity of long flowing glossy hair, and is so abundantly well furnished that not a joint of it is perceptible: but it has much the appearance of a large cluster of hair set artificially on. These animals are universally esteemed throughout the east. The chain of mountains situated between the latitudes of 27° and 28°, which divides Tibet from Budtan, and of which the summits are commonly covered with snow, forms their favorite haunt. They are extremely useful as beasts of burden, and the cows yield an abundant quantity of rich milk.

'Bridges, in a country composed of mountains, and abounding with torrents, must necessarily be very frequent: the traveller has commonly some one to pass on every day's journey. They are of different constructions, generally of timber; and if the width of the river will admit, laid horizontally from rock to rock. Over broader streams, a triple or quadruple row of timbers, one row projecting over the other and inserted into the rock, sustain two sloping sides, which are united by an horizontal platform, of nearly equal length: thus the centre is, of course, raised very much above the current, and the whole bridge forms the figure nearly of three sides of an octagon. The widest river in Budtan has an iron bridge, consisting of a number of iron chains, supporting a matted platform.'

On the summit of Sumunang, in lat. 28°, a long row of little inscribed flags, fixed in rude heaps of stones, was fluttering in the wind; they marked the boundaries of Budtan and Tibet.

'If Budtan, compared with Bengal, exhibits a vast contrast of country and climate, there is no nearer analogy between Tibet and Budtan.

'Budtan presents to the view, nothing but the most mis-shapen irregularities; mountains covered with eternal verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees. Almost every favourable aspect of them, coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation, by being shelved into horizontal beds; not a slope, nor narrow slip of land between the ridges, lies unimproved. There is scarcely a mountain, whose base is not washed by some rapid torrent, and many of the loftiest, bear populous villages, amidst orchards, and other plantations, on their summits and on their sides. It combines, in its extent, the most extravagant traits of rude nature and laborious art.

'Tibet, on the other hand, strikes a traveller, at first sight, as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and appears to be in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills, without any visible vegetation; or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce. Its climate is cold and bleak in the extreme; from the severe effects of which, the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valleys, and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. Yet perhaps Providence, in its impartial distribution of blessings, has bestowed on each country a tolerably equal share. The advantages that one possesses in fertility, and in the richness of its forests and its fruits, are amply counterbalanced in the other by its multitudinous flocks, and invaluable mines. As one seems to possess the pabulum of vegetable, in the other we find a superabundance of animal life. The variety and quantity of wild fowl, game, and beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds, in Tibet, are astonishing. In Budtan, except domestic creatures, nothing of the sort is to be seen. I recollect meeting with no wild animal except the monkey, in all my travels; and of game, I saw only a few pheasants once near Chuca.

The castle of Phari stood in a valley at the foot of Sumunang; with an abundance of musk deer in the vicinity. This animal is observed to delight in the most intense cold, and is always found in places bordering on snow. Two long curved tusks proceed from the upper jaw, and are directed downward. The deer are about the height of a moderately sized hog, which they resemble much in the figure of the body. The greatest singularity in them is the sort of hair with which they are covered, and which grows erect all over the body; partaking less of the nature of hair than of feathers; or rather resembling the porcupine's quill. The musk is a secretion formed in a little bag, or tumor, resembling a wen, situated at the navel; and it is found only in the male.

A ridge of mountains, covered with snow during the whole year, surrounded the travellers after they left Phari.—This they concluded to be the greatest altitude of this part of Tibet, perhaps of all Asia, from the rivers on the south side flowing in a southerly direction towards Bengal; while those which originate in the northern side run towards Tisulumbu, and augment the volume of the Brahmaputro.—Here our travellers saw great numbers of wild horses, or Gurcas.

> 'They were very shy, and kept so far aloof, that we could not well distinguish their marks and make; but with a glass I could discern long ears, like those of an ass, or mule, and a slender tail with little hair upon it, reaching about as low as the hock. The ears, neck, body, and tail were of one colour, approaching nearly to what we term a fawn colour; the face, belly, and legs were lighter, indeed almost white. They are said to be extremely fleet; and are never taken alive to be rendered serviceable, or domesticated: the young indeed are sometimes caught, but they soon pine away and die.'

The small village of Chalu lay 34 miles from Phari; the intermediate country being almost a desert, swept by impetuous winds, which in summer involve the traveller in clouds of dust, and in winter produce a degree of cold capable of splitting the heads of animals which are exposed to it, during the night.

The travellers passed a lake fed by springs containing a portion of alum with selenitic earth; the banks were whitened with an incrustation of alkaline salt, used by the natives for the purposes of potash: the cyrus, solan geese, ducks, pintadoes, cranes, and gulls, sported on the surface of the lake.

Shuhu, 26 miles from Chalu, exhibited the first trees which Captain Turner observed in Tibet. Beyond this place, the country improved. The valley of Jansu has the appearance of having once been a lake; and tradition affirms that the whole land of Tibet was covered with waters, till a native of Gya in Hindustan opened a passage for them to the sea, through Bengal. The sectaries of Buddha or Foe believe him to have been incarnated at Gya.—Tehuccu is situated in the vale, two miles from the castle of Jansu, and 12 from Shuhu; the environs are populous, and a manufacture of coarse woollen cloth supplies the Tibetians with their winter raiment. Ducaï lay 16 miles farther; Tsondu, 23 miles from Ducaï; and Tisulumbu, which terminates this journey, is 10 miles from Tsondu.

'If the magnificence of Tisulumbu (says Captain T.) was to be increased by any external cause, none could more superbly have adorned its numerous gilded canopies, and turrets, than the sun rising in full splendor directly opposite. We ascended by a narrow street through the middle of the monastery, and were conducted to very splendid apartments, bright with gay colours, and situated in the centre of the palace, amidst a profusion of gorgeous finery. At the instant of our entrance, we heard the deep tone of many sonorous instruments, which were summoning the religious to their morning orisons.'

The reception of the English Ambassador at Tisulumbu was marked by much courtesy. The infant Lama was still in his father's house: but the Regent assured Captain Turner that the favourable sentiments which he had entertained of the English, in his former state of existence, would not fail to revive in this present one, with redoubled efficacy. The removal of the Lama to the monastery of Terpaling was attended with much pomp. The Emperor of China had commanded a military officer of high rank, with a large detachment of troops, to attend and escort the infant Lama; who was conveyed on a throne carried by Chinese. These people, however, are rather feared than loved by the natives of Tibet, by whom they are considered as a gross and impure race of men.

The mausoleum of the late Lama is a structure of uncommon magnificence.

'Three sides of a court yard, which was paved, were surrounded with a colonnade, for the accommodation of pilgrims; upon its walls were painted many emblematical figures, of gigantic proportions.

The two principal ones, of enormous size, depicted with hideous countenances, and coloured with blue and scarlet, represented incarnations of Cali *. The pillars were painted with vermilion, and ornamented with gilding, and upon the pediment which they supported, was introduced the Imperial figure of the Chinese dragon. In the centre of the colonnade was a large gate, which opened to a principal avenue of the monastery. Immediately opposite to this gate, stood the portico of the mausoleum, on the top of which, within a low railing, was placed a device, resembling a coat of arms. Under the portico, sat a priest, who, with others, was appointed to pray on that spot, and to keep alive the sacred fire that burns before the shrine. Two ponderous doors, painted with vermilion, and embossed with huge gilded knobs, made the whole fabric ring, as their pivots grated within their sockets, and their massy sides came with strong concussion against the walls. It now appeared, that the building we had hitherto seen, served only as a case, to cover a most beautiful pyramid placed within it. At the base of this pyramid, the body of the late Lama was deposited in the coffin of pure gold, made by command of the Emperor of China, upon the decease of the Lama at his court, and in which the body was conveyed with the utmost solemnity and state, from Pechin, through the provinces of China and Tibet to Tisulumbu. It is the custom in Tibet, to preserve entire the mortal remains of their sovereign Lamas only; every other corpse is either consumed by fire, or given to be the promiscuous food of beasts and birds of prey. The late Tisu Lama is represented in an effigy of gold, which crowns the pyramid, and is placed within the concave of a large shell, radiated alternately with white and red, the edges being scolloped, and projecting so far as to form a canopy, that incloses within its hollow, the whole body of the figure. The sides of the pyramid were encased with plates of solid silver. On each step that composed the structure, which gradually diminished in breadth and depth, from the base to the vertex, were arranged all sorts of rarities, and articles of curious workmanship, which had been presented at different times as offerings to the late Lama. On the right side of the pyramid was another image of the late Lama, as large as life, of solid silver, gilt. Fruits, flowers, with various kinds of corn and oil were placed on the altar, and the air was perfumed by a multitude of odoriferous tapers. Upon the floor and on all sides, were high piles of sacred books.

'The shell or covering of the pyramid, which constitutes the exterior of the mausoleum, is a structure, when viewed at some distance, of considerable magnitude and beauty. The pillar, scolloped arch, and pediment of Asia, or Hindustan, prevail in the interior apartments; the external decorations are of Chinese or Tartar origin, similar to those of the watch tower, or temple of the former; the tented canopy and imperial dragon. In the centre of the front, within a tablet, the mystic sentence, Oom mauni païmi oom, is inscribed, in large golden characters. But the most showy part of this structure, which crowns the whole, is a spacious tented canopy, richly gilt, which is supposed

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* Cali is a Hindu goddess, and corresponds with the Grecian Hecate.

to stand immediately over the remains of the Lama, and the centre of the pyramid; it overshadows the summit of the building, from the body of which it is elevated by its own particular support, forming to the whole an elegant and graceful finish. The edges of the canopy swell out in a bold and graceful sweep. The ridge is decorated with the Chinese dragon, whose convolutions fill up all that space; and round the canopy are hung a prodigious number of small bells, which make an inconceivable noise, with every breeze that blows.'

In his conversations with the Regent and Supun Chumbu, Captain Turner met with a degree of general knowlege, of the position even of distant countries, which he had not expected to find.—Bengal is endeared to the Tibetians by many considerations. The regeneration of their Lama is said to have taken place, in times of remote antiquity, near the site of the antient and ruined city of Gowr; and all those places held in veneration by the Hindus, as Gya, (the birth-place of Buddha,) Benares, Allahabad, Gangasagor, and Jaggernaut, are equally objects of superstitious zeal with a votary of the Tibet faith, who thinks himself blessed above his fellow disciples, if he can but perform a pilgrimage to these sacred spots.—A large party of Tartars arrived with offerings to the Lama, consisting of horses, furs, Bulgar hides, and skins of butter; their route back lay through Lassa, 12 days; from Lassa to Dâm, 10 days; and from Dâm to the banks of the Sullum, 30 days; which, at 20 miles a day, must be 1040 miles.—The author deemed his situation favorable for obtaining information respecting an antient nation, 'supposed to have once inhabited the borders of the Baïcal sea, in the interior of Tartary; and from which some persons conjecture the learning, arts, and sciences of India, and even of Europe, to have been originally derived. If such a nation ever existed, the remembrance of it seems now to be buried in the deepest oblivion.'

'The general belief, as I was repeatedly assured by the Regent, which prevails amongst them, is, that both the sciences and the arts had their origin in the holy city of Benares, which they have been taught to esteem as the source and centre both of learning and religion. The antient teachers of the faith which they profess, are said to have first proceeded from this sacred city, and after having advanced towards the east, over the empire of China, to have directed their course towards the kingdoms of Europe.'

In proof of the antiquity of their knowlege of letters, says Captain T., the Tibetians urged the similarity of their sacred character with the Sanscrit. Captain Turner means the Divanagari, for Sanscrit is not a character; if there be such a similarity, (for he has not exhibited an alphabet,) we should read the mystic sentence, which he calls "Oom mauni païmi oom," differently. If the letters resemble Divanagari, they present

"Oom munèrchoronow durgomow." *The feet of the Muni* (Buddha) *are of difficult attainment.* The sacred character termed Uchen is quite as distinct from that of business and correspondence, called Umin, as the old Roman text is from the English round-hand.

'Egypt, (in their language, *Eunani*,) and the lions, (*singhi*,) were favorite topics of conversation with Supuri Chumbu. From thence perhaps they have derived their veneration for the sovereign of brutes, which they evince by the distinguished place they assign him in their sacred architecture.' We apprehend that this passage involves an important misconception; since it is not Egypt, but Greece, which is universally termed Iunan (or Ionia) by the orientals: the *singh* or lion performs too important a part in Hindu mythology, to be unknown to the worshippers of Durga.

'Tisu-lumbu, or Lubrong, the seat of Tisu Lama, and the capital of that part of Tibet immediately subject to his authority, is situated in 29° 4′ 20″ north latitude, and 89° 7′ east longitude from Greenwich. It is a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, the habitations of the Gylongs, besides temples, the mausoleum, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff; in which is comprised also, the residence of the regent, and of all the subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and crowned with a parapet, rising considerably above the roof, composed of heath and brushwood, inserted between frames of timber, which form a ledge below, and are fashioned above into a cornice, capped with masonry.

'The plain of Tisulumbu, which is perfectly level, is encompassed by rocky hills on all sides. Its direction is north and south, and its extreme length about 15 miles; its southern extremity in breadth, may be about six miles. The rock upon the face of which the monastery is situated occupies nearly the whole width of the valley, leaving room only for a road, and the bed of the river Penom-chu, which runs through it, and at a small distance beyond, joins the Brahmaputro.'

This river, as well as the Ganges, as the author was informed, has its source in the lake Man-sorobor, a month's journey west from Tisulumbu. *Sorobor*, in Sanscrit, signifies a mighty pool.

Respecting the analogy and discrepancy of the religions of Tibet and Hindustan, the author offers little that is satisfactory. We have already mentioned several instances of agreement: but they differ in various important particulars; of which we shall enumerate a few. The Tibetians know no distinction of casts; they eat flesh, even raw; they do not burn their dead; and their priests are enjoined celibacy. In these and many other respects, they differ *toto cœlo* from their southern neighbours.

The religion of this country is divided into two great sects; the first, termed *Gylucpa*, is established in Tibet, the priests of which are habited in yellow robes, with a conical cap of the same colour; the second, named *Samar*, is distinguished by red dresses, and is fixed in Budtan. Each of them has three Lamas at the head of their hierarchy; those of Tibet being the Dalai Lama, who resides at Lassa; the Tisu Lama; and Taranat Lama *, whose seat is Kharca, in the north. The Rajah of Budtan, and two other Lamas, preside over the Samar. Captain Turner observes that the principal difference consists in the Samar admitting of the marriage of the priests; yet he informed us that the Gylongs of Tasisudon observed celibacy.

'Great contentions formerly prevailed between the sects Gylucpa and Samar; and in antient times the latter is reported to have enjoyed the most extensive power. Kumbac (a region of north Tartary) acknowledged its doctrines, whilst those of the Gylucpa were settled in Kilmac. (Calmuc Tartars.) The monasteries of both were promiscuously settled over the face of the country, till at length the inhabitants of Kilmac, the Gylucpa, assembling together a mighty army, waged war against the sectaries of Kumbac, the Samar, and drove them from their possessions in various quarters, more particularly from the neighbourhood of Tisulumbu, where they were then fixed in great numbers, and where they finally established their own authority. The Gylucpa having thus displaced their opponents from their strongest post, where they had formed a large settlement, now razed it to the ground, and left not a habitation standing: but from the ruins arose the monastery of Tisulumbu. After its establishment, the superiority of Tisu Lama was firmly fixed, and the power of the Gylucpa soon attained its highest ascendancy, in consequence of the Emperor of China's having declared in its favor, and adopted for himself the distinction of the yellow hat. This completely turned the balance towards the sectaries of Gylucpa, while those of the Samar, no longer capable of maintaining their ground, were under a necessity of retiring to Budtan.'

The political object of the embassy, which was to engage the court of Tisulumbu to permit and facilitate a commercial intercourse between Tibet and Bengal, experienced little difficulty on the part of the regent; though the influence of the Chinese was manifestly hostile to free communication. On the 2d December, the author took his departure from the city, and

proceeded

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* The name of this Lama is Sanscrit, signifying *lord of the constellations;* and we suspect that most of the proper names are so, if their orthography could be ascertained. "*Otisu*" is *most sublime*, in Sanscrit; may not this be the real title of the chief Lama?

roceeded to the monastery of Terpaling to pay his respects o the infant Lama, previously to his return to Bengal. Though he young Lama was only 18 months old, and unable to speak, was hinted to the ambassador that it must not be inferred at he was incapable of understanding. Captain Turner says hat he addressed him in a short speech respecting the object f his mission; and he adds: 'The little creature turned, oking stedfastly towards me, with the appearance of much ttention while I spoke, and nodded with repeated but slow ovements of the head, as though he understood and approved very word, but could not utter a reply.' His father and moher entertained the author for some days with much courtesy. mong other accomplishments, they excelled in music; and ey mentioned that it was preserved in written characters, hich Captain Turner is convinced must be the case from the mpossibility of otherwise managing, in unison, the powerful and of instruments introduced to accompany their religious eremonies. Copies of their sacred books have been multiplied n Tibet, by the art of printing, from a very remote age: they o not use moveable types for that purpose, but set forms.

'The practice of polyandry, (says Captain T.) if I may so call, prevails universally in Tibet; and one female is seen to associate er fate and fortune with all the brothers of a family, without any striction of age, or of numbers. The choice of a wife is the privige of the elder brother; and singular as it may seem, I have been sured that a Tibetian wife is as jealous of her connubial rites, though as joined to a numerous party of husbands, as the despot of an Inian seraglio is of the favors of his imprisoned fair.'

This extraordinary custom may have been intended, as Capin Turner thinks, to guard against the greatest of all evils, o numerous a population, in an unfertile country; the shockg consequences of which, he instances in the neighbouring ountry of China. 'It tends also to prevent domestic discords, rising from a division of family interests; and to concentrate ll the spirit, and all the virtues inherent in illustrious blood.' aptain T. has not informed us whether the number of males orn in Tibet exceeds that of females: but in a country covered ith monasteries and nunneries, the intention of Nature is ontrouled by religious fanaticism. We must recollect, "*non dem omnibus esse honesta atque turpia, sed omnia majorum institis judicari.*"

"During three months (says the author) that I had passed in Tibet, I had not witnessed three cloudy days. The dryness of the soil, and scantiness of vegetation, contribute little towards charging the air with humidity. The atmosphere was clear even to brilliancy, and I had seen no fogs since the day I entered it. The thermometer t Tisulumbu during the month of October, was on an average, at eight o'clock in the morning 38°; at noon 46°; and at six o'clock in the evening 42°. The dust was for a short time extremely troublesome, but it is the practice of the husbandman to cover the low lands in the vallies with water, on the approach of winter, which incases their surface, as it were, with a sheet of ice, and prevents their being stripped of the soil by violent winds; their course of cultivation is wheat, pease, and barley.'

From Terpaling, the author pursued his return to Bengal. On the snowy mountains of Sumunang, which bound Tibet on the south, the goats, which afford the materials for the manufacture of shawls, were feeding in large flocks on the thin dry herbage. 'Their colours were various; black, white, of a faint bluish tinge, and of a shade something lighter than a fawn. They have strait horns, and are of a lower stature than the smallest sheep in England. The light shawl wool clothes the animal next the skin: a coarse covering of long hair grows above this, and preserves the softness of the inferior coat.'

Budtan presented a milder climate and more genial soil; 'the Rajah's garden was adorned with groves, crowded with rich loads of the finest oranges, citrons, and pomegranates. The mango and peach tree had parted with their produce, but hoards of apples and of walnuts were opened for our gratification.' Traversing these mountainous regions, and the sickly tract at their feet, where goitres are as frequent and as fatal as at the bottom of the Alps, our travellers found themselves again in the East India Company's territories.—The reviewer may now say with the fly in the fable, "*J'ai tant fait que mes gens sont enfin dans la plaine!*"

The commerce, which the Bengal government wished to encourage, promised to answer their most sanguine expectation. Broad cloths, spiceries, precious stones, tobacco, indigo, and muslins, were exported by the Bengal merchants to Tisulumbu: the returns consisted of gold dust, musk, and tincal dug from the bed of a lake. Mines of gold, silver, cinnabar, copper, and lead, are said to be found in Tibet; and salt is procured in abundance from the same lake which yields the tincal. In 1785, a Hindu merchant was intrusted with dispatches for the Regent, by Mr. Hastings: on whose arrival at Tisulumbu, it was found that many merchants had already brought their commodities to market; and others followed before he left the place. The ceremony of inaugurating the young Lama had been performed with the utmost magnificence, in October 1784.—These flattering appearances, however, were of no long duration.

In the year 1792, a race of people inhabiting the mountains of Nepal, which are situated to the south of Tibet, to the west of

ſtan, and border on the northern frontier of Bengal, com-
d hostilities against the states of Tibet. Their progress
ttremely rapid; and the soldiers of the supreme pontiff
tary were as speedily disarmed as those who surrounded
ted head of the catholic church. The young Lama and
urtiers sought their safety in flight, and Tisulumbu fell
to a handful of banditti. The valuables which had
s been accumulating in that sanctuary were the principal
of the invaders; and, after having plundered the city,
ithdrew to deposit the spoils within their fastnesses, in
pal mountains. This purpose having been accomplish-
y re-assembled in force on the extensive plain of Tingri,
y between Nepal and Tisulumbu; where they deter-
to wait, and try their strength, in case the Tibetians
choose to give them battle: but a more formidable
was now advancing to the contest.

the borders of Tartary, immediately contiguous to China,
force was collected, by the Emperor's orders, to repel
punish the invaders of the sacred territory; and on the
of Tingri, the Nepalese suffered a total defeat. The
se army advanced to the frontiers of Nepal, and attacked
st of Coti, which held out a considerable time. After its
ion, the Nepalese, destitute of any immediate resource,
nduced to solicit the interference of the British govern-
and Captain Kirkpatrick was the first of our nation
btained admission into that country. The Chinese
, however, pursued their fortune with uniform success;
ir General at length listened to the submissive overtures
Nepalese, and granted them a peace, on the conditions
nnual tribute to the empire, and the full restitution of all
ils which they had carried away from the monastery of
mbu. The suspicious temper of the Chinese led their
nder to interpret the appearance of the English ambas-
t Nepal, as a proof of our nation having afforded assist-
the invaders; and the similarity of dress and discipline
n the Nepal soldiers, and the battalions in the company's
, strengthened this delusion; so that a line of posts is
tablished, which prohibit on every side all access to the
s dominions. From this period, says the author, is to
d the interruption which has taken place in the regular
urse between the Company's possessions, and the terri-
f the Lama.

very agreeable and instructive work, to which we have
g called the attention of our readers, will amply requite
osity of those who may afford it a perusal. The un-
d veracity of the writer is accompanied by no common

talents

talents for description; and the scenery and society with which he was conversant, during the short period of his mission, yield him ample scope for indulging those powers. In a second edition, we would recommend it to the author to recollect whether the rivers, which intersect the Sundribon, do not proceed from the Ganges before it joins the Brahmaputro; whether pine apples are not said to have been found in Assam by the very Commander who (as he states) brought them to Cus-behar; and whether the feast of Cali, vulgarly termed "*Cheragh-puja*," can possibly have any correspondence with the Mahommedan or Tibetian festivals which he specifies, either in time or object. Mistakes in these important matters, however, detract nothing from the value of a performance which contains much and important information, relative to a country almost unknown to European nations.

ART. II. *Observations on the Seventh Form of Roman Government*; in a Letter to the Rev. Henry Kett, B. D. Author of History the Interpreter of Prophecy *. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. Butterworth. 1800.

OF the seven-headed beast which was presented to St. John in vision, that apostle gives the following description; "And there are seven kings: five are fallen, and one is, and the other is not yet come; and when he cometh, he must continue a short space. And the beast that was, and is not, even he is the eighth, and is of the seven, and goeth into perdition." Rev. xvii. 10, 11. These seven kings, according to the most common mode of interpretation, adopted in the work to which these *Observations* refer, denote the forms of Roman government, viz. first, Kings; second, Consuls; third, Dictators; fourth, Decemvirs; fifth, Military Tribunes; sixth, Emperors; seventh, Gothic Kings, and Exarchs of Ravenna; eighth, Popes. Of these forms, five had fallen when St. John wrote; and the sixth, or Imperial form, was in actual existence. At what time it was succeeded by the seventh, and what was the precise nature of this seventh form, are the points to which our attention is directed in the pamphlet before us.

Although we are not induced absolutely to renounce the generally received opinion, by the author's objections, nor are satisfied with the hypothesis which he proposes, we are ready to allow that he has discussed the subject in a manner which claims notice; and he can have no occasion for recurring to the modest apology with which he closes this well-written pamphlet. Foreign as the subject may be to his usual studies, it has evidently occupied his thoughts; and in the prosecution of it, the industry of his research has been not less laudable than the sagacity of his judgment. We shall therefore first give a compendious abstract of his objections to the common interpretation, and then state his own hypothesis; submitting the whole to the decision of those of our readers who are accustomed to disquisitions of this nature.

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* See Rev. for June last.

The author observes that the Gothic kings, and the Exarchs of Ravenna, were two distinct *forms* of government, 'at least as different in their natures from each other, as any two which had preceded in the history of Rome;' and if they be considered as one form, because they agreed in one characteristic, namely, their subordination to the Emperor, he apprehends that, by the same kind of reasoning, every delegated government, which existed in Rome after the removal of the royal palace to Nicomedia, may be included under the same form: so that we shall thus be under the necessity of supposing that the sixth head, or Imperial government, was extinguished at so early a period as the reign of Dioclesian. If, on the other hand, it be allowed that the authority of the Emperor, in the western provinces, so far ceased on the resignation of Augustulus as to make the kingdom of Italy a new form of Roman government, this circumstance is not applicable to he Exarchs, who were the mere representatives or delegates f the Emperor. Besides, the Ostrogothic kingdom and the xarchate of Ravenna were fundamentally different in their nstitutions; the former being an hereditary monarchy, ough possibly subject to the Emperor, as feudal sovereign liege lord; and the latter being altogether dependent on the zantine Court. According to this representation of them, y ought to have been considered as separate and distinct ns of government; and they should have been exhibited by erent heads.

he author farther argues that, if each of the seven heads be nded to denote some form of Roman government, (that is, form in which the city of Rome exercised dominion,) the of a foreigner, averse from the arts and unacquainted the language of the Romans, and whose policy it was to tuate the separation of the Italians and Goths, could not any propriety be considered as a form of Roman govern- Rome, it is urged, was not the capital of the Ostro- kingdom; and if it be maintained that the sixth head ed to subsist while the seat of the Imperial government Nicomedia, or Constantinople, or Milan, or Ravenna, hor replies that Rome was subject to a foreign yoke;

and that no circumstances could render the government of a foreigner the government of Rome, but his making Rome the metropolis of his kingdom, and adopting the character of a Roman.

If it be allowed that the names of blasphemy, which were written on the heads of the beast, (See Rev. xiii. 1.) comprehended the seventh as well as the others; and if we suppose that these denote forms of government, under which Rome, in a state of idolatry, exercised dominion; we derive from this view of the case another reason for arguing that neither the kingdom of Italy nor the exarchate of Ravenna can be considered, individually or collectively, as the seventh head; since both the Ostrogothic kings and the Exarchs were christians.

Admitting the common opinion, that the deadly wound mentioned in Rev. xiii. 3. was inflicted by Odoacer, A. D. 476, the author infers that, if the seventh head commenced with the accession of Theodoric, the deadly wound was then healed, and we must look for all its dreadful effects in the usurpation of Odoacer:—but he argues, from the peaceful resignation of Augustulus, and from the just and moderate reign of the king of the Heruli, that this could not be the period in which the consequences of the wound were grievously felt:—whereas, if we look forwards to the close of the sixth century, or to the time of the exarchate, we shall perceive deplorable traces of the degradation and distress to which Rome was reduced. "Like Thebes, or Babylon, or Carthage, the name of Rome might have been erased from the earth, (says Gibbon,) if the *city* had not been animated by a vital principle, which again restored her to honour and dominion." This, according to our author, was the principle of idolatry; and, by the mighty influence of that sentiment, according to the sure word of prophecy, the deadly wound was healed. At the commencement of the seventh century, when image worship very commonly prevailed,

> 'Curiosity and superstition combined in rendering Rome a place of general resort; and while the concourse of strangers increased the opulence of her citizens, the influence of public opinion again raised her to pre-eminence in the scale of cities.'—'At this period of general fascination, therefore, we ought to look for the rise of the seventh form of Roman government; and history does not disappoint our expectations. The dominion exercised by Boniface III. and his immediate successors in the see of Rome, under the title of Universal Bishops, whether considered with respect to its extent of jurisdiction or degree of power, is fully entitled to the denomination of a Roman government.'
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> 'In the beginning of the seventh century, (continues the author,) the woman again took her seat upon the beast, which then raised up a seventh

a seventh head—that is, the city of Rome again became an idolatrous power, 'and exercised dominion under a seventh form.'

This seventh form, according to the author, was the Universal Bishopric assumed by the See of Rome; which he considers as distinct from the eighth or the papal antichrist, and which prepared the way for its introduction and establishment. To this purpose, he cites the declaration of Gregory the Great; who pronounces, in the most unequivocal terms, that he who assumes the title of Universal Bishop, *Antichristum præcurrit.* 'When the pride, the ambition, and the persecuting spirit, together with a great part of the territorial possessions, of the Pagan empire (the beast that was and is not) were transferred to the Universal Bishopric, the relative state of Rome was so far changed, that she might almost be said to have acquired a new government.' Accordingly, when St. John, after having recounted seven kings, or forms of government, mentions an eighth king in a manner that marks the change which the seventh was to undergo, 'he sufficiently cautions us against looking for an eighth distinct form of government, by adding that it is "of the seven"—*i. e.* "proceeding, or springing from the seven."'

In the sequel, the author proceeds to shew that

'The Universal Bishopric, after continuing for near a century and a half (a short space compared with the duration of thoſe powers which immediately preceded and followed it) underwent that extraordinary and important change which entitled it to be considered as the eighth king or Papal Antichrist.'—'When we consider the character of the papacy about the middle of the eighth century, the antichristian vices by which the Popes of that remarkable period were distinguished, the hostility to pure and spiritual worship which they maintained, and the enormous accession of power which they received, we shall not hesitate to allow, that the Universal Bishop then grew into the Papal Antichrist. And if it were necessary to assign a precise period for the commencement of the reign of the latter, we should not perhaps incur much danger of error in fixing upon the year of our Lord 755, when Pepin, either influenced by the hope of obtaining the promised remission of his sins, or by gratitude for the services of his spiritual coadjutor in dethroning his lawful sovereign, first placed the Universal Bishop on the throne of temporal dominion, and thereby crowned his unrighteous projects with success.'

We now leave the argument to the judgment of those who are competent to decide on this subject; or, at least, who have more leisure to pursue so intricate a subject than we can boast.

ART. III. *Letters to a Prebendary:* being an Answer to Reflections on Popery, by the Rev. J. Sturges, LL. D. Prebendary and Chancellor of Winchester, and Chaplain to his Majesty; with Remarks on the Opposition of Hoadlyism to the Doctrines of the Church of England, and on various Publications occasioned by the late Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

IT is not with much pleasure that we find ourselves again called to the controversy which is the subject of these letters. If an ability to form a proper judgment concerning the merits of it depend on a previous acquaintance with the writings of 'the famous schoolman St. Thomas Aquinas,' as Mr. Milner intimates, (p. 21,) we must decline giving any opinion in the present case: for we profess that we have not derived our knowlege of the doctrines of religion from this source. The learned prebendary also, to whom the letters are addressed, has been not less unfortunate in the course of his education than ourselves; and to this cause it is owing, according to the present author, that he has not learnt 'to state religious doctrines with more precision and accuracy, and also to reason upon them with more solidity and force' than he has done. Mr. Milner, however, recurring to a much higher authority than that of this venerable schoolman, challenges his antagonist to explain away, by means of his scriptural knowlege,

> 'That clear and energetical declaration of Christ, for the superiority of the first bishop of Rome, St. Peter, over the rest of the apostles; where this saint, in reward for his glorious confession of his master's divinity, is pronounced by him *blessed;* his name, which was before *Simon*, is changed into that of *Peter* or *Rock*, with an assurance that the church itself shall be principally built upon him; where immediately afterwards the mysterious keys of heaven, to the exercise of which such important effects are here ascribed, are specially committed to him; and that other passage, where the same Peter, who, on every other occasion, is named the first on the list of apostles, is in a most solemn and impressive manner, three several times appointed to the supreme pastorship in Christ's fold; with authority not only to feed the lambs, but also the sheep themselves, whom the lambs are accustomed to follow.'

By this kind of reasoning, the supremacy of Peter is established; and who can doubt his being the first bishop of Rome, or hesitate to allow a regular transfer of all his spiritual powers to his successors? The author then proceeds to evince the claims of the subsequent bishops of the Roman see, the mode in which they acquired and maintained ecclesiastical pre-eminence, and the advantages resulting from it. He contrasts

e signal services which they rendered to literature and
and to society in general, with the vices and crimes
ich some of them have been charged; and he closes
gyric with observing, that ' the worst popes were
service to the cause of religion by filling their station
hurch, than they were of detriment to it by the effect
ndal of their personal crimes.'—' In the catalogue,'
' of about 255 pontiffs, who have filled the chair of
during a succession of almost 1800 years, since the
St. Peter, perhaps not more than 30 names occur
ishonour it; while double that number have been per-
eminent virtues and heroic sanctity, whose example is
held out for the edification of Christians; and the rest
n prelates of unblemished manners and edifying piety.'
having enlarged on the virtues and the sufferings of
pope, Pius VI., ' whose essential authority *was* not
l in the dungeons of Dauphiny than it was in the
and Vatican basilics,' the author terminates his eulogy
ind of triumph:

lst you, Sir, glory in the mutability of your creed, which
us to understand can accommodate itself to fluctuating
permit me to glory in the unchangeable nature of mine.
the firm basis of the *faith which was once delivered to the*
has already withstood the violence and calamities of 18
; and it will, I am well assured, continue to withstand all
n, until the second coming of its divine founder.'

der to guard against any misapprehension of the sense
h he maintains the papal supremacy, Mr. Milner explains
ning in the following proposition:

t the pope is possessed of a real superiority and authority in
istian church, conformable to the text above; that the
erself, as composed of a head and members, is, by virtue of
e promises, supernaturally assisted in preserving and teaching
hs that were originally revealed to her; and that the said
jurisdiction, whether of the pope or of the church, is of a
itual nature, and perfectly distinct from the temporal rights
ority of princes and states. This last mentioned point,
of principal importance on the present occasion, as it is that
you endeavour to render the allegiance of catholics suspected,
ly conformable to scripture, (Matt. xxii. 21.) and to the
of the most celebrated pontiffs and prelates in ancient times,
is of the most consequence, directly follows from the solemn
ich the catholics have of late taken to the legislature, by its
ointment.' [The oath is as follows: " I do declare, that I
elieve that the pope, or any other foreign prince, prelate, &c.
ought to have, any civil jurisdiction, power, superiority, or
ence, directly or indirectly, within this realm." 31 Geo. III.

The 3d letter contains an elaborate defence of monastic institutions, and of clerical celibacy. Mr. M. concludes it with observing that,

> 'However honourable and even holy the state of matrimony is in itself, however necessary it is to the state, and however conformable to the general condition of mankind, still it may be for the benefit of religion, that the small number, who, as Christ says, receive this saying (Matt. xix. 11.), and who are called to the exercise of the Christian ministry, should for the sake of their flocks lead continent lives. They can have no other adequate motive for universally subjecting themselves to this restraint.'

The purport of the 4th letter is to prove that persecution was not a tenet of the Roman catholic religion. To this end, Mr. M. alleges that, 'if the mere fact of catholics having used violence against persons of a different communion, were a proof that persecution was a tenet of their faith, as you argue in the first instance, this would equally prove that this doctrine equally made part of the creed of almost all denominations of protestants.' He argues this point by shewing that 'the several sects of protestants have, in many places, and upon principle, persecuted each other to the extremities of exile, perpetual imprisonment, and death.'

He next examines the decrees and canons of general councils, and particularly the 3d canon of Lateran IV., held in 1215, 'which excommunicated all heretics, and ordered that they should be delivered up to the secular power to undergo due punishment; and that the latter should be obliged, under pain of ecclesiastical censures, and the loss of their lands, to extirpate all heretics resident upon them.' For evading the force of this canon, Mr. M. observes that some writers have questioned its authenticity; that, admitting it to be genuine, it has now no force in any part of the church; that the ordinances of this council were made with the concurrence of those who had competent authority in these matters; and that, with respect to the justice of the canon, it should be remembered 'that, in the catalogue of heresies, which have prevailed in different ages, there was one of so impious, so perfidious, and so infamous a nature, and above all so destructive of the human species, that a pagan government would betray its duty, which neglected to extirpate it by fire and sword.' This heresy the author traces from the Gnostics, in the age immediately following that of the apostles, to the Manicheans, who derived it from the Persian Manes; from them to the Paulicians in Armenia; and through the kingdom of Bulgaria, between the Danube and the Black Sea, to France, Italy, and Spain, in the 10th and 11th centuries; where those who espoused it were denominated Albigenses, Beghardi, Brethren of the Free Spirit, &c. To the persecution of the Albigenses, against whose errors and preaching Mr. Milner exclaims with peculiar violence, the continuance of society and of the human race is ascribed; and they are represented as the pests of the communities in which they were found.

As to the Inquisition, Mr. Milner maintains 'that the practices, and the very existence of the inquisition, have as little connection with the catholic religion, as they have with my history of Winchester, where they are not, to my recollection, once mentioned.'—'I fear, (he adds,) if the spirit of our respective churches is estimated by what you and I have advanced concerning the persecutions which more immediately relate to ourselves, namely, those which have taken place in this country since the reformation, that the balance of toleration will not appear to be in favour of the church of which you are the advocate.'—Closing the contrast of Elizabeth's severities with those of Mary, 'will you then at length, (he says,) enter into the proposed compromise, of not in future reproaching me with the fires of Mary's reign, upon my consenting not to upbraid you with the knives and gibbets of Elizabeth's? If you do not agree to this, I think I can answer for it, that the reader will decide that it is your duty so to do.'

In the 5th letter, Mr. M. investigates the state of literature, the arts, religion, and morality, before and after the reformation; and he exhibits a very unfavourable and exaggerated representation of the principal persons who were concerned in effecting this event. Luther leads the van, and he is followed by Zuinglius, Carlostadius, Oecolompadius, Ochin, Calvin, and Beza. Hooper, Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer, are also selected as victims to the author's zeal against the cause which they were active in promoting.—The evident design of this letter is to evince the injury which the reformation produced with regard to the principles and morals of the countries in which it was encouraged, and to vilify those who were the chief agents in accomplishing it.

The 6th letter contains a detailed account of the state and conduct of the catholics, particularly during the reign of Elizabeth; at which period Mr. M. observes, 'their behaviour was eminently loyal and meritorious.'—In the next letter, the same subject is pursued; and the author attempts, by various documents, to vindicate the catholics from any concern in the principal plot which the history of the reign of the Stuarts records; while he enumerates, with a minuteness which does credit to the industry of his research, and with an asperity for which his profession will furnish some apology, the severities which they endured at and after the period of the revolution. He does not forget to mention the unwarrantable conduct of the Protestant Association.

We are not surprised that Mr. M. should renew his attack on the principles and character of Bishop Hoadly: but while he professes to be actuated by a regard for the general interests of Christianity, and for the peace and welfare of the community, we could have wished that he had manifested more of the Christian spirit, and more of that liberality and candour which might have been expected from a scholar and a divine.

'If I cannot persuade Christians, (says Mr. M.,) to admit of that living speaking tribunal in the pastors of the universal church, which I conceive to be as necessary for preserving it in absolute peace and unity, as the living speaking tribunal of judges and magistrates is found to be for the safety of the state, I wish to prevent them from frittering away their religion, and launching into that latitudinarianism, with which Hoadly has been so generally and justly reproached: being persuaded that this is the direct road to the philosophic incredulity of modern times. If they will not be good catholics, I am desirous that they should remain good church of England-men, convinced that thereby the sacred code of revelation will be much less violated, and the public peace and happiness much more effectually secured.'

With the view of exposing this excellent prelate, and those who adopt his sentiments, to general odium, the writer compares his doctrines with the articles and liturgy of the church; particularly with regard to the nature and form of the church, the sacraments, the Christian mysteries, and the assent or subscription which is required to the 39 articles and the Book of Common Prayer. The attack on Hoadly also furnishes occasion for declamation and invective against Dr. Balguy, and more especially Dr. Sturges, the author's antagonist; and accordingly the letter on Hoadlyism is principally levelled against these writers. Of the spirit with which it is written, the following specimen may suffice:

'It is true, (says Mr. M. addressing Dr. S.) you boast of having scripture on your side. And what extravagant or impious innovation in the church during 18 centuries has not made the same boast? If every other argument, demonstrating the necessity of a living speaking tribunal, to determine the sense of scripture, were wanting, the confidence with which yourself and others of the most learned divines of the present day appeal to the four Evangelists, in proof that the sacraments are devoid of all mystery and grace, would alone be sufficient to convince me of it.'

The learned prebendary is competent to his own vindication, if he should think proper to defend himself, and those who entertain sentiments similar to his own, against the present attack;

ttack: but the mode of it, we conceive, is not such as merits ery respectful attention.

Of the Appendix to these Letters, which contains remarks ore immediately relating to the history of Winchester, we annot take any notice in an article already extended far beyond ur intention.

ART. IV. *The Annual Necrology*, for 1797-8. Including also various Articles of neglected Biography. 8vo. pp. 660. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1800.

OMITTING any trite panegyric on the *subject* of the volume before us, we shall only observe, what every biographical tract obtrudes on the attention, that there is no proportion between the utility of this kind of composition and the facility of the execution; or the kind of talents and the frame of mind which are necessary to render it excellent. The present age has abounded in biographical works, and they yet continue to increase: but, unfortunately for the public, they have generally been formed from very scanty materials; and they too often treat of men not only unimportant in themselves, but whose lives afford little variety of instruction to the reader; or finally, each article is the panegyric of a friend, or the invective of an enemy. In fact, impediments stand in the way of any great advances to excellence in biography, which are nearly, if not altogether, insurmountable: since the materials necessary for composing an instructive and authentic account of any person are generally to be collected only from the individual himself;—and he who relates the facts of his own life will seldom be a faithful and impartial narrator. On the other hand, if we confine ourselves to what may be called the public incidents in the life of the individual, (those circumstances which, from their publicity, may be with certainty known,) the recital of them must be jejune and unimportant;—because, undoubtedly, the most interesting part of every man's history is that which lies only within his own knowlege, or can least have been communicated to others; that part which led to the great changes by which the epochs of his life are marked; which comprehends the motives, the feelings, and the impulses that gave birth to his plans, and suggested those projects that have ended in defeat, or those which have been crowned by eventual success. Perhaps, therefore, it ought rather to be attributed to the nature of the undertaking, than to any fault in the compiler of the volume before us, that we here find sometimes but a faint outline of an important life, and sometimes a detail of minute and petty circumstances, evidently collected by partial friendship. To avoid both of these extremes is, probably, a task which we shall seldom see executed. We must therefore be contented with biography such as we generally find it, subject to these imperfections; and, as we cannot frequently expect authentic, full, and impartial narratives, we must learn to be satisfied with those which are least doubtful, least scanty, and least prejudiced.

In the volume before us, we have accounts of *thirty-four* characters, each of whom has in some respect attracted, or deserved to attract, the notice of mankind. Among these we find the names of the Abbé Barthelemy, M. Bailly, M. Lavoisier, Mr. Bakewell, Dr. Kippis, Count Hertzberg, Mr. Burke, Catharine II., Dr. Farmer, General Hoche, Theodore late King of Corsica, his son Colonel Frederic, Mr. Wilkes, Miss Wollstonecraft, Condorcet, &c. &c. As these sketches have been drawn by a number of hands, much inequality in the execution may be pre-supposed: but the reader will find that the aggregate of the work is intitled to a considerable degree of praise, for the general merit of style, for judicious observation, and for entertaining anecdote.

In the variety of articles of which the volume consists, there is scarcely one which our limits will suffer us to transcribe as a specimen: but, rather than deny our readers any of the entertainment which it affords, we shall give the substance of what we here find respecting the late unfortunate Colonel Frederic.

'The following account, which he was accustomed to give of himself, affords some insight respecting the place of his birth:—

" I am the child of misfortune. Theodore king of Corsica was my father; after a variety of adventures, he repaired to the court of Spain; obtained the rank of colonel in that service; and married lady Sarsfield, of the noble house of Lucan in the kingdom of Ireland, who had been appointed maid of honour to the queen, in consequence of the misfortunes of her father, and his attachment to the house of Stuart.

" I am the fruit of that union. My father, after spending a great deal of money, and getting into debt, left us; and, in consequence of various changes of fortune, both acquired and lost the crown of Corsica; he then repaired to England, where I his son followed him, in order to share his misfortunes, and administer to his necessities."

' It would appear then, that he was born in Spain; but the particulars of his infancy are wholly unknown. He is said, however, to have been brought up at Rome, and to have received his education, which was certainly a liberal one, in that city. Indeed, from many circumstances observable to those who have conversed with him, it was pretty plain that his early youth had been spent in a college, and he himself committed to the care of the priesthood. He was accustomed to assert, that he had been placed for some time under the tuition of professor Lobcowitz, a man of some celebrity, and who had attained considerable eminence by a treatise on astronomy, written, according to the fashion of that day, in the Latin tongue.

'The only account we have of his youth is gathered from one of his own publications; in which he says he was bred a military man, and "had made several campaigns under the most experienced generals of the age." He further remarks, that when the brave Corsicans made so gallant a stand in defence of their liberties, "he himself, with Buttafuoco and Colonna, two Corsican gentlemen, who had served with distinction in the regiment, composed of their countrymen, in the service of France, offered to join Paoli in so glorious cause, but he rejected the offer."

'He is also reported to have occupied a literary department in the cabinet of Frederick II. of Prussia.

'But whatever might have been his profession, or situation in life, certain it is that he united a knowledge of military tactics to great skill in the civil and canon law, and attained an uncommon facility in all the languages of Europe. He spoke French, German, Italian, and Spanish, with great fluency; and he acquired a considerable degree of perfection even in English, which is allowed to be extremely difficult to a foreigner, and more especially to a native of the south of Europe. He, however, conversed in it with considerable ease, and was particularly attentive to the grammatical construction; but it was soon perceived, by his accent, that it had not been familiar to him from his birth.

'On his first arrival from the continent, about the year 1754, he betook himself to the teaching of Italian, and subsisted for several years by that means. At this period of his life he got acquainted with many men of considerable celebrity, and Macklin and Garrick are said to have been his scholars. By the latter he was promised great things; the former he introduced to Mr. Wedderburne, the present lord chancellor, who at that time wished to get rid of his northern accent, in which he has most effectually succeeded. He himself was also his lordship's instructor.

'During the confinement of Theodore he visited him frequently, and is said to have shared his scanty pittance with that unfortunate monarch in a manner that would have done credit to the most affectionate son.

'By a German lady whom he married abroad he had two children: the one a son, the other a daughter. The first perished at the battle of German town, the other is still alive. I have been repeatedly assured by himself, that he had more than once tasted the bounty of the late princess dowager of Wales, who compassionated his misfortunes and those of his family. There is also some reason to believe that her Royal Highness was partly induced, from certain *political motives*, to patronize him; for it was rumoured at that time, that the Duke of York, brother of his present Majesty, had conceived the idea of becoming king of Corsica; and although this was treated as a vague report, in a tract published at that period, yet it appears evident that colonel Frederick had drawn up a manuscript account of the island, for the inspection of his Royal Highness.

‘ After an absence of a few months on the continent, Frederick returned to London with a ribband in his hat. He also occasionally appeared in a green uniform, richly laced with silver, and long German epaulets; and, as he was said to have obtained the *brevet* rank of colonel from the late duke of Wurtemburgh, and also the *croix de merite*, he was ever after recognised by that appellation. Although not formally acknowledged as his serene highness's agent in this country, it is well known, however, that he transacted business of a diplomatic nature in his name; and helped him to dispose of a regiment of his subjects to the English East India Company. Towards the latter end of the American war, the colonel also tendered the service of a body of Wurtemburgers, ready disciplined and accoutred; and he was accustomed to assert, that the premier having cheerfully acceded to the proposition, the troops were actually put in motion, and considerable expences incurred. On being countermanded, soon after this, by an order from Great Britain, the colonel preferred a claim for bat and forage money, pay and subsistence, amounting to many thousand florins; and his pretensions were backed by repeated memorials, addressed to all the different administrations that have succeeded each other since that period until 1797.

‘ In the year 1791 an affair which promised to be of some service to his finances occurred. The prince of Wales, and some of the younger branches of the royal family, had conceived the idea of obtaining a considerable loan on the continent, by means of their joint security; and colonel Frederick was actually sent to Antwerp to negociate the business. His majesty, however, disliking the scheme, openly interposed by means of his agents; and prevailed not only on a respectable banking-house abroad to withdraw its countenance, but also prevented the subscribers from advancing the money according to agreement. On the failure of this unprosperous affair he returned to England, much chagrined and disappointed; and never mentioned the subject without a considerable degree of emotion. Soon after this he drew up a statement of the case, which death alone prevented him from publishing.

‘ His finances, during many years, were in a deranged state; and, for some time before his demise, he had been occasionally supplied with little sums from various friends. Being a great economist, his expences were small; but, notwithstanding this, he had contracted several trifling debts, and one in particular to an amount which subjects a man's body to the rigours of a jail. In short, he was in daily danger of being arrested; and thus became prevented from frequenting those places and persons rendered dear to him by custom.

‘ Another object, of no small concern to a feeling mind, occupied and agitated his thoughts. This was the situation of his daughter, Mrs. Clarke, a lady who had also her full share of misfortunes. His amiable grand-daughters too were grown up, but remained wholly unprovided for. It had been the colonel's custom to visit them frequently, and on all occasions, when it suited his convenience, he was sure to make little presents to the family. Unable to administer to their relief, he had not repaired to their residence, in St. Mary-le-Bone, for a considerable time previously to the melancholy catastrophe that soon after ensued; and he sent word, " that he would never see them again, until he could do it in a satisfactory manner."

' As it now became dangerous to remain any longer at his lodgings in Northumberland-street, in the Strand, where he had resided during many years, he repaired to Waghorn's coffee-house, under the house of lords, and communicated his fears to Mrs. Seagoe, who permitted him, during that night, to sleep in another house belonging to her in the neighbourhood. In the morning he repaired to the attorney of the plaintiff, who had sued out a writ against him, to solicit a little delay, but he was refused this in a brutal manner. He then asked a friend for the loan of twenty pounds; but receiving an equivocal answer, became distracted at his situation. His misfortunes now multiplied every hour, and his calamities became, at length, so great, that he determined to put an immediate period to his existence. It was at this critical period that he is supposed to have written the following melancholy note, on a slip of paper:——

" All the curses in the tragedies are fallen upon me; without a house, without a country, without a friend; having for enemies even those men whom I have obliged. Incumbered with debts, and so poor that I live only from day to day, and sometimes I have nothing to live.

" To these I have opposed magnanimity to distress, nature to law, and reason to the troubles of the soul."

' On this awful occasion (his purpose being at length fixed) his conduct afforded a singular specimen of calm intrepidity; and there is perhaps no instance on record, in which suicide has ever been committed with more cool determination. Indeed he seems, on this occasion, to have resolved the long agitated problem, whether self-destruction be not always produced by insanity?

' Having procured and loaded a pistol, and being no longer apprehensive of the myrmidons of the law, whose power he could now set at defiance, he arose at the usual hour in the morning of Wednesday February 1, 1796, and walked out in his customary manner, without exhibiting any signs of agitation, or betraying any symptoms of his dreadful purpose, to those whom he accosted.

' Towards the afternoon he proceded to Storey's-gate coffee-house, Westminster, a place often frequented by him, where he dined. He then called for his half pint of port, a quantity he rarely exceeded; looked over the morning papers; asked for and perused an evening one; and departed at eight o'clock, with his accustomed serenity.

' Having then repaired straight to the gate of Westminster-abbey, which is in the immediate vicinage, he pulled out the instrument of destruction from his pocket, and applying it to his temple, drew the fatal trigger, and in a moment ceased to exist.'

This work, we are told by the editor, is to be continued annually. It will certainly be no common industry that will enable him to furnish yearly such a volume as the present.

ART.

Art. V. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1800. Part I. 4to. sewed. Elmsly and Bremner.

According to our former practice, we shall divide the papers in this volume into classes; and we shall now begin with those which range under the head of

Mathematics.

On the Method of determining, from the real Probabilities of Life, the Values of Contingent Reversions in which three Lives are involved in the Survivorship. *By* William Morgan, Esq. F.R.S.

In this paper, the ingenious author pursues his investigation of the doctrine of contingent reversions, as they are applicable to those cases in which three lives are concerned in the survivorship; and the problems now presented to the public, added to those contained in his former papers, afford a complete view of the subject to persons who are conversant in this department of science. As Mr. Morgan's eminence in disquisitions of this nature is universally acknowleged, it may be sufficient to observe, on the present occasion, that we are indebted to him for the first solutions that have ever been deduced, in the case of two and three lives, from just principles, and the real probabilities of life; and that, with respect to many of the problems, none have ever attempted so much as to *approximate* to the value of the reversion. 'Being possessed (says Mr. M.) of correct solutions of all the cases in which two or three lives are involved in the survivorship, we are possessed of all that is really useful, and therefore I feel the greater satisfaction in closing my inquiries on this subject. For, in regard to contingencies depending on four or more lives, the cases are not only much too numerous and intricate to admit of a solution, but they occur so seldom in practice, as to render the entire investigation of them, were it even possible, a matter of little or no importance.'

Of Mr. Hellins's *second Appendix to the improved Solution of a Problem in Physical Astronomy, inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for the Year* 1798, we shall only say that it is a valuable addition to his former communications on the same subject; as it furnishes improved *formulæ* for facilitating and abridging the calculations that are necessary in the solution of the problem to which they relate. Sir Godfrey Copley's medal has been adjudged to Mr. H. for this solution, and his other mathematical papers.

Philosophy.

On the Power of penetrating into Space by Telescopes; with a comparative Determination of the Extent of that Power in Natural Vision,

sion, and in Telescopes of various Sizes and Constructions; il- strated by select Observations. By William Herschel, *LL.D.* R.S.

In order to proceed with clearness and facility in the dis- ssion of the subjects of this paper, the author begins with fining the terms which most frequently occur, and explain- g some algebraic symbols which he has adopted for expressing em. He ascribes brightness to bodies that throw out light, d those which throw out most light are the brightest. The ole quantity of light thrown out by a luminous surface is lled L; and the luminous physical points which compose is surface are denoted by N. If the copiousness of the ission of light from each of these points were precisely the ne, it might be expressed by C: but, as that is most pro- bly never the case, C is made to signify the mean quantity. ence it appears that CN is equal to L; and brightness will nsequently be truly defined by CN. In estimating the pearance of luminous objects at any assigned distance, it ill be proper to leave out of the account every part of CN, hich is not applied to the purpose of vision; and, therefore, L represents the whole quantity of light thrown out by CN, at part of it which is used in vision, either by the eye or by telescope, is denoted by l. Accordingly, the equation of ght, in this sense of it, is CN$=l$. As the density of light, owever, decreases in the ratio of the squares of the distances f the luminous objects, the quantity of it at the distance D ill be expressed by $\frac{l}{D^2}$.

In natural vision, the quantity l undergoes a considerable change by the opening and contracting of the pupil of the eye. If we call the aperture of the iris a, it is known to vary considerably in different persons. The variation of a in different circumstances is not easily ascertained: but, in determining the quantity of light admitted through a telescope, no such difficulty occurs. This must depend on the diameter of the object-glass, or mirror; and its aperture A may at all times be duly measured. Hence it follows that the expression $\frac{a^2 l}{D^2}$ will always be accurate for the quantity of light admitted by the eye, and $\frac{A^2 l}{D^2}$ sufficiently so for the telescope.

After having answered some objections to the theory of brightness here proposed, the author proceeds to investigate the general extent of natural vision.

‘ Among the reflecting luminous objects, our penetrating powers are sufficiently ascertained. From the Moon we may step to Venus, to Mercury, to Mars, to Jupiter, to Saturn, and last of all to the Georgian planet. An object seen by reflected light at a greater distance than this, it has never been allowed us to perceive: and indeed it is much to be admired, that we should see borrowed illumination to the distance of more than 18 hundred millions of miles; especially when that light, in coming from the Sun to the planet, has to pass through an equal space before it can be reflected, whereby it must be so enfeebled as to be above 368 times less intense on that planet than it is with us, and when probably not more than one-third part of that light can be thrown back from its disk. For, according to Mr. Bouguer, the surface of the Moon absorbs about two-thirds of the light it receives from the Sun.

‘ The range of natural vision with self-luminous objects, is incomparably more extended, but less accurately to be ascertained. From our brightest luminary, the Sun, we pass immediately to very distant objects; for Sirius, Arcturus, and the rest of the stars of the first magnitude, are probably those that come next; and what their distance may be, it is well known, can only be calculated imperfectly from the doctrine of parallaxes, which places the nearest of them at least 412,530 times farther from us than the Sun.’

Next to these stars of the first magnitude, a second set will occur; of which the situation, one with another, may be taken at about double the distance of the former from us. If we suppose α Cygni, β Tauri, &c. to belong to this class of the second magnitude, it is known that, whether we look at these or at the former, the aperture of the iris will probably undergo no change; and therefore a becomes a given quantity, and may be left out in the above expression $\frac{a^2l}{D^2}$ for the brightness of these objects. D^2, according to the preceding statement of distance, will be in one case four times that of the other; and consequently the two expressions for the brightness of the stars will be l for those of the first magnitude, and $\frac{1}{4}l$ for those of the second.

‘ The quantities being thus prepared, what I mean to suggest (says the author) by an experiment is, that since sensations, by their nature, will not admit of being halved or quartered, we come thus to know by inspection, what phenomenon will be produced by the fourth part of the light of a star of the first magnitude. In this sense, I think we must take it for granted, that a certain idea of brightness, attached to the stars which are generally denominated to be of the second magnitude, may be added to our experimental knowledge; for, by this means, we are informed what we are to understand by the expressions $\frac{a^2l}{\odot^2}$, $\frac{a^2l}{\overline{\text{Sirius}}^2}$, $\frac{a^2l}{\overline{\beta\ \text{Tauri}}^2}$.*

‘ * The names of the objects ⊙, Sirius, β Tauri, are here used to express their distance from us.’

'We cannot wonder at the immense difference between the brightness of the Sun and that of Sirius; since the two first expressions, when properly resolved, give us a ratio of brightness of more than 170 thousand millions to one; whereas the two latter, as has been shewn, give only a ratio of four to one.'

The author then proceeds to ascertain the comparative brightness of stars of the third magnitude, such as the pole-star, γ Cygni, ε Bootis, and others of the same order; and he finds that 'the difference between these and the stars of the preceding order is much less striking than that between the stars of the first and second magnitude;' and 'that the expressions $\frac{a^2l}{\overline{\beta\,\text{Tauri}}|^2}$ and $\frac{a^2l}{\overline{\text{Polaris}}|^2}$ are not in the high ratio of 4 to 1, but only as 9 to 4 or $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 1.'

From the faintness of stars of the 7th magnitude, Dr. H. infers that no star, 8, 9, or at most 10 times as far from us as Sirius, can possibly be perceived by the natural eye:—but, when the light of single stars fails, the united lustre of sidereal systems will still be perceived. Such are the whitish patch in the sword-handle of Perseus; beyond this the cluster discovered by M. Messier in 1764, north following H Geminorum; at a still farther distance, the nebula between η and ζ Hercules, discovered by Dr. Halley in 1714; and among the farthest objects that can make an impression on the eye, unaided by telescopes, the nebula in the girdle of Andromeda, discovered by Simon Marius in 1612.

Dr. Herschel's next object is to ascertain the penetrating power of the telescopes. In a telescope, the brightness or light admitted, which to the naked eye is truly represented by $\frac{a^2l}{D^2}$, will be expressed by $\frac{A^2l}{D^2}$; and therefore the artificial power of penetrating into space should be to the natural one as A to a: but this proportion must be corrected by the practical deficiency in light reflected by mirrors, or transmitted through glasses. Dr. H. investigates what allowances are to be made on this account; and he then deduces a general formula, which expresses the penetrating power of all sorts of telescopes compared with that of the natural eye, as a standard, according to any supposed aperture of the iris, and proportion of light returned by reflection, or transmitted by refraction. He proceeds to determine the powers of the instruments used by himself in his astronomical observations; and for this purpose he has reported the observations themselves, arranged in a manner which seemed to be the best adapted to his purpose.

He has also established the distinction subsisting between magnifying power and the power of penetrating into space, and has evinced the difference between them in a variety of instances. He shews how these powers occasionally interfere with each other, so that in some instances the magnifying power is injured by the penetrating power, and *vice versâ*; and he observes that the highest power of magnifying may possibly not exceed the reach of a 20 or 25 feet telescope, or may lie in even a less compass, allowing for some favourable hours, in which it is hardly possible to set a limit to magnifying power. With respect to the penetrating power of telescopes, he is of opinion that there is room for a considerable increase. The penetrating power of his 40 feet reflector already extends to 191,69, and he thinks that it might be carried to 500, but probably not much farther. 'The natural limit seems to be an equation between the faintest star that can be made visible by any means, and the united brilliancy of star-light.' He concludes, on the whole, 'that objects are viewed in their greatest perfection, when, in penetrating space, the magnifying power is so low as only to be sufficient to shew the object well; and when in magnifying objects, by way of examining them minutely, the space-penetrating power is no higher than what will suffice for the purpose; for in the use of either power, the injudicious overcharge of the other will prove hurtful to perfect vision.'

The author terminates this paper with a calculation of the time which it would require to sweep the heavens as far as they are within the reach of his 40 feet telescope, charged with a magnifying power of 1000. Under all the circumstances that occur, a year which will afford 90, or at most 100 hours, may be deemed very productive; and with this allowance, it appears 'that it will require not less than 598 years to look with the 40 feet reflector, charged with the above-mentioned power, only one single moment into each part of space; and even then, so much of the southern hemisphere will remain unexplored, as will take up 213 years more to examine.'

Outlines of Experiments and Inquiries respecting Sound and Light. By Thomas Young, M.D. F.R.S.

The first section of this paper contains an estimate of the quantity of air discharged through an aperture, which the author determines to be nearly in the sub-duplicate ratio of the pressure; and he ascertains the ratio of the expenditures by different apertures, with the same pressure, to lie between the ratio of their diameters and that of their areas. The pparatus by means of which his estimate was formed is very imple, and the results are arranged in four tables.—In the 2d ection, we have an account of experiments for determining the irection and velocity of a stream of air, with the conclusions educed from them.—The 3d section contains a brief descripon of the author's contrivance for exhibiting ocular evidence f the nature of sound, illustrated by a figure.—The velocity f sound is the next object of inquiry; with respect to which is remarked that, 'corrected by the experiments of various bservers, the velocity of any impression transmitted by the ommon air may, at an average, be reckoned 1130 feet in a econd.'—On the subject of sonorous cavities, M. De la range has demonstrated "that all impressions are reflected by n obstacle terminating an elastic fluid, with the same velocity ith which they arrived at that obstacle." The same writer as also proved "that any impression whatever communicated o one particle of an elastic fluid, will be transmitted through at fluid with an uniform velocity, depending on the constiution of the fluid, without reference to any supposed laws of e continuation of that impression."

The 6th section treats of the divergence of sound. The uthor controverts the fact generally allowed on the authority f Newton, that, if any sound be admitted through an aperure into a chamber, it will diverge from that aperture equally n all directions. He observes that there is a material diference between impulse and pressure; the former, when ransmitted by an elastic fluid, acting primarily in the direcion of its progress. He adds that, if a person calls to another with a speaking trumpet, it is pointed towards the place where the hearer stands; and that a report of a cannon is many times louder to a person towards whom it is fired, than to one placed in a contrary direction. Other facts are adduced to the same purpose.

The decay of sound is the subject of the next section. M. De la Grange estimates it nearly in the simple ratio of the distances, and the same conclusion may be deduced from the experiments and reasoning of other writers:—but, from the reasoning of Maclaurin, with respect to the communication of motion through a series of elastic bodies increasing in magnitude, applied to the present case, Dr. Young infers that sound should decay in the duplicate ratio of the distance. This subject is referred to farther examination.

The 8th section treats of the harmonic sounds of pipes. The results of experiments on this subject are contained in a table, and exhibited in a figure.—In the 9th section, on the vibrations of different elastic fluids, Dr. Y. observes that all the methods of finding the velocity of sound agree in determining it to be, in fluids of a given elasticity, reciprocally in the sub-duplicate ratio of the density. This circumstance will account for the different estimates given by different writers. The French Academicians state it to be 1109 feet in a second, Derham makes it amount to 1142. The average, the present author thinks, may be estimated, without any material error, at 1130. He adds;

'The well-known elevation of the pitch of wind-instruments, in the course of playing, sometimes amounting to half a note, is not, as is commonly supposed, owing to any expansion of the instrument, for this should produce a contrary effect, but to the increased warmth of the air in the tube. Dr. Smith has made a similar observation on the pitch of an organ in summer and winter, which he found to differ more than twice as much as the English and French experiments on the velocity of sound. Bianconi found the velocity of sound, at Bologna, to differ at different times, in the ratio of 152 to 157.'

In examining the analogy between light and sound, Dr Young suggests some difficulties which attend the Newtonian doctrine of the emanation of particles of light from lucid substances. The first is the uniform velocity with which light is supposed to be projected from all luminous bodies, in consequence of heat or otherwise. If the corpuscules of light differed in velocity, this variation ought to produce a different refraction. Besides, it appears in this system to be wholly inexplicable, why of the same kind of rays, in every circumstance precisely similar, some should be always refracted, and others transmitted. The uniformity of the motion of light, which is a difficulty in the Newtonian theory, favours the admission of the Huygenian, or that of an ethereal vibration; as all impressions are known to be transmitted through any elastic fluid with the same velocity. 'For explaining the phænomena of partial and total reflection, refraction and inflection, nothing more is necessary (says Dr. Young) than to suppose all refracting media to retain, by their attraction, a greater or less quantity of the luminous ether, so as to make its density greater than that which it possesses in a vacuum, without increasing its elasticity; and that light is a propagation of an impulse communicated to this ether by luminous bodies.'

That the colours of light consist in the different frequency of the vibrations of the luminous ether, which is the conjecture of Euler, is strongly confirmed by the analogy between the colours of a thin plate and the sounds of a series of organ-pipes. Dr. Young observes that,

It appears from the accurate analysis of the phenomena which
vton has given, and which has by no means been superseded by
later observations, that the same colour recurs whenever the
kness answers to the terms of an arithmetical progression. Now
is precisely similar to the production of the same sound, by
ns of an uniform blast, from organ-pipes which are different
tiples of the same length. Supposing white light to be a con-
ed impulse or stream of luminous ether, it may be conceived
ct on the plates as a blast of air does on the organ-pipes, and to
luce vibrations regulated in frequency by the length of the lines
h are terminated by the two refracting surfaces.'

he remaining sections of this paper treat of the coalescence
nusical sounds, the frequency of vibrations constituting
iven note, the vibrations of chords, the vibrations of
and plates, the human voice, and the temperament of
ical intervals. These last are illustrated by figures, and
plate is appropriated to the purpose of exhibiting a com-
tive view of different systems of temperament; and this
be easily extended to all the systems that have ever been
nted.

xperiments and Observations on the Light which is spontaneously ed, with some Degree of Permanency, from various Bodies.

Nathaniel Hulme, M.D. F.R.S. & A.S.

he subject of this paper is that light which is emitted from
ne animals, both in a living state and when deprived of
from quadrupeds, from insects, from rotten wood, and
peat. This kind of light is called spontaneous, in
r to distinguish it from all sorts of artificial phosphorus;
by its adhesion to bodies with some degree of permanency,
different from that transient sort of light which is ob-
ible in electricity, in meteors, and in other lucid ema-
ns. The numerous experiments which the author has
ed were performed in a dark wine-vault, the heat of
h varied throughout the year from about 40° of tempe-
e to 64° of Fahrenheit. From the first series of experi-
ts on herrings and mackerel, the author infers that light
s to be emitted by marine fishes before any signs of
scency appear; and that, as soon as a great degree of
efaction has taken place, the luminous property of the
s is destroyed, and the light extinguished. This con-
on is very different from that of some other writers on
ame subject; who have maintained that the quantity of
emitted by putrescent animal substances is proportioned
e degree of putrefaction; and they agree with the facts
rded by Aquapendente, Bartholin, Boyle, and Beale;
observed the light spontaneously emitted by animal flesh

before any perceptible putrescence could have taken place. Dr. Hulme observes that, for the purpose of these experiments, he selected the freshest fishes which could be obtained; and that he previously gutted them, took out the roes, (which are very productive of light,) and carefully removed the scales.

The second section contains a detail of several experiments designed to shew that the light here mentioned is a constituent principle of some bodies, particularly of marine fishes; that it may be separated from them by a peculiar process; and that it may be retained and rendered permanent for some time. The weight of about four drachms of a fresh herring was put into a solution of two drachms of Epsom salt, and two ounces of cold spring water. On carefully examining this liquid, which was contained in a wide-mouthed three-ounce phial, on the second evening after the process was begun, a lucid ring was observed to float at the top of the liquid, while the lower part was dark: but, on shaking the phial, the whole became at once beautifully luminous, and continued in this state. On the third evening, the light had again risen to the top: but the lucid ring appeared less vivid; and, on shaking the phial as before, the liquid was not so luminous as on the preceding night. This experiment and others similar to it were repeated, and afforded the same result. From other experiments, it appeared that the whole body of the fishes, which were examined, emitted a considerable quantity of light: but the soft roe, both of the herring and mackerel, abounded more with light than the flesh, and emitted generally more light than the hard roe.

From the several facts here enumerated, the author infers that this light is a constituent principle of marine fishes; that it is separated like other principles by the menstruum which is fitted to decompose their substance; and that it is incorporated with every part of this substance. He also concludes that light is probably the first constituent principle that escapes after the death of marine fishes; that no offensive putrefaction takes place in the sea, after the death of such myriads of animals as must daily perish in the ocean, quite contrary to what happens on land; and that the flesh of marine fishes remains tolerably sweet for some time, and may become wholesome food for many kinds of those which still remain alive. 'An eminent instance this (says the author,) of the wisdom of the Creator, in the construction of the aqueous part of the world, which comprehends, by far, the greatest portion of the terraqueous globe, and is the most replete with animal life.'

Dr. H. then proceeds to shew that some bodies or substances have a power of extinguishing spontaneous light, when it is applied to them. Of these he enumerates a great variety; such as water;

er; water impregnated with quicklime, with carbonic acid , or with hepatic gas; fermented liquors; ardent spirits; ieral and vegetable acids; fixed and volatile alkalis, when d's- ved in water; neutral salts, *i. e.* saturated solutions of Epsom , of common salt, and of sal ammoniac; infusions of chamile flowers, long pepper, and camphor, in boiling hot er, and not used till they become quite cool and pure iey, if used alone. Other substances have a power of pre- ving spontaneous light for some time, when it is applied to m; so that the luminous matter may be taken from the ies which supply it, and diffused through water so as to der the whole liquid brilliantly luminous, or thus to im- gnate water with light. It farther appears that, when spon- eous light is extinguished by some substances, it is not lost, may be revived in its former splendour by the most simple ans. From other experiments, it is deduced that sponta- ous light is rendered more vivid by motion; and that it is accompanied by any degree of sensible heat, discoverable a thermometer. We learn also from experiments on the ht of fishes, of shining wood, and of glow-worms, that cold inguishes spontaneous light for a time, but not durably; the light revived in its full splendour, as soon as it was ex- sed to a moderate degree of temperature. Heat extinguishes light of fishes; shining wood, put into water at the tem- ature of 90° to 60°, became much more lucid, but was tially extinguished at about 110°, and totally in the heat of iling water. When much heat is applied to the bottom of tube filled with illuminated liquid, which has been for some ie at rest, the light descended in luminous streams from the of the tube to the bottom, and was gradually extinguished. The last section contains a detail of experiments made with view of investigating the effects of the human body, and of e animal fluids, on spontaneous light.

CHEMISTRY.

Account of a Series of Experiments, undertaken with the View decomposing the muriatic Acid. By Mr. William Henry.

The decomposition of the muriatic acid is an object of in- resting investigation to the chemist, as it would contribute wards establishing and completing the theory of the forma- ion of acids in general, which is one of the most important arts of the new system of chemistry. The constitution of his acid being hitherto unknown, attempts for effecting the alysis of it must be directed by the analogy of the decompo- ition of other bodies, which, from similarity of character, are ranged in the same class. The ingenious writer of this paper observes, that the state of gas is the only one in which the muriatic acid can become a proper object of analysis. In a series of experiments on this gas, here recited, the electric fluid was employed as an agent much preferable to artificial heat.

The first course of experiments was pursued with a view of examining the effects of the electric fluid on the muriatic acid gas, without any admixture. For this purpose, the gas was confined over mercury in straight glass tubes of various diameters, armed at the sealed end with a conductor of gold or of platina, but generally of the latter metal; and the electric shocks were as strong as could be given without breaking the tube,—an accident which, notwithstanding, frequently occurred.

As our limits will not allow us to do justice to the experiments, by that minuteness of detail which would be necessary for this purpose, we must content ourselves with briefly reciting the conclusions which the author has deduced from them. They are as follow:

'1. The muriatic acid gas, in the driest state in which it can be procured, still contains a portion of water. 2. When electrical shocks are passed through this gas, the watery portion is decomposed. The hydrogen of the water, uniting with the electric matter, constitutes hydrogenous gas, and the oxygen unites with the muriatic acid; which last, acting on the mercury, composes muriate of mercury. 3. The electric fluid serves as an intermedium, in combining oxygen with muriatic acid. 4. The really acid portion of muriatic gas does not sustain any decomposition by the action of electricity. 5. When electric shocks are passed through a mixture of carbonated hydrogen and muriatic acid gases, the water held in solution by these gases is decomposed by the carbon of the compound inflammable gas; and carbonic acid and hydrogenous gases are the result. 6. When all the water of the two gases has been decomposed, no effect ensues from continuing the electrization; or, if the water of each gas has been previously destroyed, by electrifying them separately, no further effect ensues from electrifying them conjointly. 7. Since therefore carbon, though placed under the most favourable circumstances for abstracting from the muriatic acid, and combining with, its oxygen, evinces no such tendency, it may be inferred that if the muriatic acid be an oxygenated substance, its radical has a stronger affinity for oxygen than charcoal possesses.'

It appears from the whole result of the experiments, which Mr. Henry has judiciously selected, and on which he has bestowed much attention and labour, that

'All hope must be relinquished, of effecting the decomposition of the muriatic acid, in the way of single elective affinity. They furnish also a strong probability, that the basis of the muriatic acid is some unknown body; for no combustible substance, with which we are acquainted, can retain oxygen, when submitted in contact with charcoal,

to the action of electricity, or of a high temperature.
sis of this acid must, in future, be attempted with the aid
ated affinities.'

attempts were made to analyse the fluoric acid, but
ineffectual. They serve, however, to render it pro-

uoric acid, like the muriatic, is susceptible of still farther
on, in which state it becomes capable of acting on mercury.
nic acid, on the contrary, appears not to admit of differ-
s of oxygenation. When the electric shock has been re-
assed through a portion of this acid gas, its bulk is en-
d a permanent gas is produced, which is evidently a mix-
ygenous and hydrogenous gases; for, when an electrical
assed through the gas that remains after the absorption of
ic acid by caustic alkali, it immediately explodes. These
n take place on electrifying carbonic acid from marble,
calcined in a low red heat, to expel its water, and then
an earthen retort.'

w fulminating Mercury. By Edward Howard, Esq.

rcurial powder announced in this paper was prepared
ixing the pure red oxide of mercury with alcohol,
ing on both the nitric acid. The acid gradually
the oxide; and, after some minutes had elapsed, a
ther was perceptible, and a white dense smoke, re-
that which arises from the *liquor fumans* of Libavius,
ed with ebullition. The mixture then threw down a
ured precipitate, which by degrees became nearly
his precipitate was separated by filtration.—Observing
ystallized in small acicular crystals, of a saline taste,
g a part of the mercury volatilized in the white fumes,
ard entertained hopes that muriatic acid had been
nd united to the mercurial oxide. He therefore
lphuric acid on the dried crystalline mass; when a
fervescence ensued, and, to his great astonishment,
on took place. For a more particular and minute in-
n of the constituent principles of this powder, the
of preparing it, and the numerous experiments that
e with it, we must refer to the author's own account.

ANATOMY.

onian Lecture. On the Structure and Uses of the Mem-pani of the Ear. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S.

rincipal object of investigation in this paper is the
structure of the *membrana tympani*. In the elephant,
brane is so large, that the parts of which it is com-
y be easily distinguished even by the naked eye; and
its

its muscular fibres are observed to pass, in a radiated manner, from the bony ring which surrounds it, towards the handle of the malleus, to which the central part of the membrane is firmly attached. This discovery led to that of a similar construction in the human *membrana tympani.* Although this membrane in the human ear is much exceeded by that of the elephant, both in extent and thickness, and consequently its muscular structure is incapable of being so distinctly perceived by the naked eye, yet, in circumstances that are peculiarly favourable, it may be discerned without the aid of glasses.

'If the *membrana tympani* of the human ear is completely exposed on both sides, by removing the contiguous parts, and the cuticular covering is carefully washed off from its external surface, then, by placing it in a clear light, the radiated direction of its fibres may be easily detected. If a common magnifying glass is used, they are rendered nearly as distinct as those of the elephant appear to the naked eye; their course is exactly the same; and they differ in nothing but in being formed upon a smaller scale. When viewed in a microscope magnifying 23 times, the muscular fibres are beautifully conspicuous, and appear uniformly the same throughout the whole surface, there being no central tendons, as in the diaphragm; the muscular fibres appear only to form the internal layer of the membrane, and are most distinctly seen when viewed on that side.'

As muscles in general are supplied with blood-vessels in proportion to the frequency of their action, it is an object of importance to determine the vascularity of the membrana tympani. This the author was enabled to do by a preparation of the membrane, furnished by Dr. Baillie, in which the vessels had been most successfully injected with coloured wax. In this preparation, the vessels, in their distribution, resembled those of the iris, and were nearly half as numerous; and from this correspondence in the number and distribution of blood-vessels between the *membrana tympani* and the iris, it is justly presumed that this membrane is endowed with muscular action.

In the horse, this membrane is smaller than in man, and its fibrous structure is not visible to the naked eye: but with a microscope it is very discernible, and appears in every respect to agree with that of the membrane in the human ear and in that of the elephant. The *membrana tympani* of birds is larger in proportion than in the quadruped, and, when examined with a microscope, presents a visible radiated structure.

From a knowlege of the muscular structure of the *membrana tympani,* Mr. Home accounts for many phænomena in hearing, which have not hitherto been explained in a satisfactory manner. 'It is principally by means of this muscle, that accurate perceptions of sound are communicated to the internal organ, and at the membrana tympani is enabled to vary the state of ısion, so as to receive them in the quick succession in they are conveyed to it.' In order to account for the :r in which the radiated muscle adapts the *membrana tym-* › different sounds, Mr. Home enumerates the more im- ıt parts of the organ of hearing, and points out the uses only assigned to each of them. He then observes that *mbrana tympani* is stretched and relaxed by the action of uscles of the malleus, not for the purpose alleged in the only received theory, but 'to bring the radiated muscle membrane itself into a state capable of acting, and of those different degrees of tension to the membrane which wer it to correspond with the variety of external tremors: the membrane is relaxed, the radiated muscle cannot ith any effect, and external tremors make less accurate ssions.'

he membrana tympani, with its tensor and radiated muscles, : not unaptly compared to a monochord, of which the mem- :ympani is the string; the tensor muscle the screw, giving the ıry tension to make the string perform its proper scale of vibra- and the radiated muscle acting upon the membrane like the ›le bridge of the monochord, adjusting it to the vibrations :d to be produced. The combined effects of the action of nuscles give the perceptions of grave and acute tones; and, in tion as their original conformation is more or less perfect, so ıeir actions be, and, consequently, the perceptions of sound they communicate.'

s a curious circumstance, mentioned by the author, that lar application of muscles should be employed to fit the s to produce a succession of sounds, and to enable the be impressed by them.

rom the explanation given of the adjustment of the membrana ni, the difference between a musical ear and one which is too ect to distinguish the different notes in music, will appear to ntirely from the greater or less nicety with which the muscle malleus renders the membrane capable of being truly adjusted. tension be perfect, all the variations produced by the action of liated muscle will be equally correct, and the ear truly musical; the first adjustment is imperfect, although the actions of the :d muscle may still produce infinite variations, none of them : correct: the effect, in this respect, will be similar to that pro- by playing on a musical instrument which is not in tune. The g of articulate sounds requires less nicety in the adjustment, f inarticulate or musical ones: an ear may therefore be able to re the one, although it is not fitted to receive distinct percep- rom the other.'—'This mode of adapting the ear to different s, appears to be one of the most beautiful applications of muscles in the body; the mechanism is so simple, and the variety of effects so great.'

Mr. Home then mentions some remarkable instances, in which the correctness of hearing is affected by the wrong actions of the muscles of the tympanum. These appeared to be inexplicable, but we may readily account for them in consequence of our knowing the means by which the membrane adjusts itself on particular occasions.—The disposition and office of the *membrana tympani* in fiſh, birds, quadrupeds, and particularly the elephant, are investigated in the sequel of this interesting paper. Several circumstances are recited, which confirm the opinion generally received that the hearing of the elephant is more acute than that of man. Mr. Home observes that, as the organ of hearing belonging to this quadruped is more perfect, and formed on a larger scale than in any other animal with which we are acquainted, considerable weight is given to this opinion.

Observations on the Effects which take place from the Destruction of the Membrana Tympani of the Ear. By Mr. Astley Cooper. *With Remarks by* Everard Horae, *Esq.*

The observations contained in this paper, and founded on two remarkable cases that occurred, incontestibly prove that the loss of the *membrana tympani* in both ears, far from producing total deafness, occasions only a slight diminution of the powers of hearing. This conclusion is deduced by Mr. Cooper from the facts which he has recited; and he adds that the functions of this membrane have been probably supplied by the membranes of the *fenestra ovalis* and *fenestra rotunda*. 'The office of that membrane (says Mr. Home,) is to afford an extended surface, capable of receiving impressions from the external air, and of communicating them to the small bones of the ear; which a membrane would be incapable of doing, unless it had a power of varying its tension, to adapt it to different vibrations.' When the *membrana tympani* has been destroyed, 'the air is capable of acting with sufficient force upon the *stapes* to communicate vibrations to it, and to produce on the internal organ the necessary effect for perfect hearing.' This fact is completely ascertained by Mr. Cooper's observations.

Account of a Peculiarity in the Distribution of the Arteries sent to the Limbs of slow-moving Animals; together with some other similar Facts. In a Letter from Mr. Anthony Carlisle, *Surgeon, to* John Symmons, Esq. F.R.S.

The Maucauco, or *Lemur tardigradus* of Linné, was injected with a view of exhibiting the course of the arteries, deviate from the ordinary arrangement of these blood- in other animals. This peculiarity is observable in the arteries, and in the iliacs.

se vessels, at their entrance into the upper and lower limbs, lenly divided into a number of equal-sized cylinders, which ally anastomose with each other. They are exclusively dis- on the muscles; whilst the arteries sent to all the parts of r, excepting the limbs, divide in the usual arborescent form; n those arteries of the limbs which are employed upon sub- not muscular, branch off like the common blood-vessels. I (says the author,) 23 of these cylinders, parallel to each bout the middle of the upper arm; and 17 in the inguinal is.'

radypus tridactylus, or great American sloth, the *bra- dactylus*, and the *lemur levis*, have a similar distribution of ries of their limbs. The several subjects are exhibited xe figures. The effect of this peculiar disposition of ries, in the limbs of these slow-moving quadrupeds, that of retarding the velocity of the blood, passing into scles of the limbs. 'It may be difficult to determine, r. C.) whether the slow movement of the blood sent to uscles be a subordinate convenience to other primary f their slow contraction, or whether it be of itself the ate and principal cause.' He informs us that he has not h any arrangement of blood-vessels analogous to those e has described, except in the carotid artery of the d he suggests that this peculiarity may be subservient 'to g continued exertion of the muscles of his jaws, whilst a powerful animal, such as a horse or buffalo, and able him to retain his prey, until it is wearied out by ual struggles.'

volume contains, as usual, an abstract of Mr. Barker's of the barometer, thermometer, and rain for the year and the meteorological journal of the Royal Society for r 1799.

I. *A Synopsis of Husbandry.* Being cursory Observations : several Branches of Rural Œconomy. Adduced from a nd practical Experience in a Farm of considerable Extent. ohn Banister, Gent. of Horton-Kirby in Kent. 8vo. 71. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799,

o, in his celebrated dialogue on Old Age, makes the er Cato, the chief interlocutor, thus speak of the agri- life: "*Venio ad voluptates agricolarum, quibus ego incre- delector: quæ nec ullâ impediuntur senectute, et mihi ad* *sapientis vitam proxime videntur accedere.*" This might pass as the remark of a philosophic and sentimental farmer: but the experienced practical agriculturist knows that his profession ought not to be painted in the most captivating colours; that, though, as being conducive to health and virtue, it appertains to the life of a wise man, it is full of care and trouble; and that false notions of it have induced many persons to engage in it, until it has finally proved their ruin. Mr. Banister tells us that he has been a farmer during thirty years: but he does not endeavour to make us, like old Cato, violently enamoured of agriculture, by exhibiting fascinating romantic views of it, and by representing the facility with which a farm may be conducted:—he would rather discourage us from such an undertaking, unless we are disposed to give our whole time and attention to it. There is so much truth in what he advances on this head, and his observations are of so much importance in guarding against a rock on which many fortunes have been shipwrecked, that we consider ourselves as discharging a duty to the public by faithfully transcribing them:

'The practice of husbandry hath of late years been considered as a task of the utmost facility, and many gentlemen have imagined that a plentiful fortune, with a moderate share of abilities, were all the requisites to be sought after in the formation of a complete farmer. That as the most laborious part of the business is to be transacted by servants, the master himself can have little else to do, but to indulge his natural taste for a country life, by following the sports of the chace, and sacrificing his evening hours to convivial joys and bacchanalian festivity. A person who embarks in the farming business with these ideas, conceives, that the management of it need give him little uneasiness, since the whole process is pointed out with so much perspicuity by Tull, Ellis, and the rest of the numerous class of writers on that subject, whose books he hath so often read over with delight: by an attention to these rules, he imagines he shall readily outstrip the neighbouring farmers in agricultural knowledge: that whilst they are contented to jog on in the old beaten track, and with the utmost industry and frugality can obtain only moderate crops, and a decent livelihood; himself will boldly launch into those schemes recommended by his favourite authors, which, he doubts not, will in a few years insure to him an ample fortune, and by raising his reputation in the art to the highest pitch, invite others of the profession to follow his example; and this increase of knowledge, and consequent improvement of his fortune, he supposes may be easily attained, without either breaking his peace of mind by care and anxiety, (the usual attendants on the industrious,) or wearing out his corporeal strength by toil and labour, too often, alas! the only fruits which the husbandman gathers, and the reward of a long life passed in this employment. But our young farmer (happy in the ideal fertility of his land, and his superior skill over his neighbours) anticipates none of the evils of life; and although he daily perceives a visible diminution in his purse, yet he parts with his money without regret, consoling himself with the thoughts of the ample interest he is to receive for it, and anxiously expecting the approach of harvest, which is to bless his longing eyes with overflowing cornucopias and a tenfold increase. Persuaded of the truth of every proposition advanced in his favourite writers, he implicitly adopts all the idle and expensive schemes that he finds offered in their books, and is amazed to behold a backwardness in the rest of the profession to follow his example. But, alas! all his airy visions soon pass away, and by the time he has spent a twelvemonth in the profession, he finds that he has been pursuing a phantom, and hunting a will o'-th'-wisp, that has bewildered him within the most intricate mazes, and led him into a quagmire, whence he will find it no easy task to extricate himself; and awakening from his pleasing delusion, he is at length convinced, that the many schemes held forth in the books which had hitherto regulated his conduct, were built upon a sandy foundation; and that although they appeared to him very amusing in the closet, yet in the field they were impracticable: that so far from raising larger crops than his neighbours, his own returns fall infinitely short of theirs; and his barn being quickly emptied, he is again constrained to have recourse to his (now, alas!) almost-exhausted coffers, to supply the various demands which are continually made on him, by the wheeler, the blacksmith, and those other numerous creditors, his servants; all of whom press forward to take advantage of his ignorance and supine neglect; whilst his clamourous landlord is importunate for his rent, and, at the time when he expected to have amassed his thousands, this deluded man perceives himself on the brink of destruction, and derided by those people, who (as he fondly imagined) would have relinquished the method handed down to them by their ancestors, to have adopted his visionary and romantic projects.'

When the gay young man, or the literary bookworm, is incited to engage in the business of a farm, by the vast profit which appears from a calculation on paper to be the unavoidable result of such an undertaking, he rarely reflects on the importance of unremitting assiduity, and on the loss which he may suffer from the dishonesty of servants. The practical farmer, however, knows these facts; and the latter in particular is stated by Mr. B. as a farther warning to indolent and pleasurable agriculturists.

'Though frugality and good management be necessary in every station of life, yet in this of husbandry they seem to be more particularly required than in any other profession; the husbandman having to do with a set of people, the most likely of any others to take advantage of his imprudence and neglect; I mean the lower class of tradesmen, and country servants: The former, it is well known, are too often men of selfish principles and designing views, and who, without scruple, will make use of every mean and dirty action, which does not fall under the cognizance of the law, to deceive and circumvent their credulous and ignorant employer, and are therefore to be guarded against with a watchful eye: as to the servants and labourers who must necessarily be employed in country business, they (being of a race the most low bred and illiterate) do often turn out the most unprincipled and profligate; and though perhaps they may not have attempted the commission of the most atrocious offences; yet in the low arts of deception, the country ploughman is inferior to few; and where this race of domestics find a bad œconomy pursued, they will quickly avail themselves of their master's negligence; and whilst he imagines that he is annually a gainer by his business, he will find himself at length reduced to penury, although perhaps he may not have been sparing of his labour, and his crops may have been very prolific. So necessary is it for the husbandman to watch with circumspection the actions of his servants, and diligently to superintend his day labourers, his task men, and his yearly ploughmen, who will otherwise, all of them in their several stations, make it their daily care to abuse his indolence and easiness of temper, and to profit by his negligence and inattention.'

So far from writing for speculative farmers, this Kentish gentleman rather discourages them from reading his *Synopsis.* This work is divided into four books. The first treats of *Soils* and *Manures*;—the second of *Wheat*, *Barley*, *Oats*, *Beans*, *Pease*, *Tares*, *Rye*, *Turnips*, *Potatoes*, *Rape* and *Buck Wheat*;—the third of *Saintfoine*, *Clover*, *Trefoil*, *Ray Grass*, *Lucerne*, *Weld* and *Hops*;—the 4th of *Green Land*, *Horses*, *Black Cattle*, *Sheep*, *Swine*, *Fences*. Each book is subdivided into several chapters; to which are added Miscellaneous Observations on the Economy necessary to be pursued in the various Departments of Country business; with an Appendix on *Weather*. The whole being closely printed, on a small type, no inconsiderable quantity of matter is included in this volume.

Having given an outline of the contents, (which the author himself should have done, by affixing a *Table* at the beginning, as well as an Index at the end; both of which are omitted;) we shall proceed to notice more particularly the observations which occur in the several subdivisions of the work; not that we can, within the space allotted to this article, minutely follow Mr. B. through the various subjects which he has discussed: but we shall select such specimens as will be sufficient to give the reader an idea of his method and sentiments, and of the general merits of his performance.

Soils he arranges under five heads; clays, gravelly or stoney soil, chalks, sands, and loams; and allotting to each a chapter, he treats of the kind of tillage and management which each requires, and of the manures which are most proper for them. In the culture of a clay soil, for instance, he recommends stout able horses, of the most sturdy breed, to draw single; to use the swing plow; to fallow up as soon as possible after the wheat season is finished, if the land is to be sown with oats or beans; to give it a summer fallow once in four or five years, preparatory to a wheat crop; and to use chalk*, as of all other dressings the most beneficial to stiff land. He observes that the good clayey soils may be discriminated from those which are sterile, and not worth the trouble of cultivation, by the appearance of the trees, corn, and other vegetables. 'The prosperous growth of the trees and hedges, the flourishing state of the corn, and the verdure of the meadow land, are favourable omens; whilst the stunted appearance of the trees, thin crops of corn and short grass, are strong indications of the poverty of the soil.' This hint is worth the regard of those whom it may concern; and indeed the author's observations on the other kinds of soil, and their mode of treatment, are not less judicious.

In considering the efficacy of manures in the cultivation of the earth, we do not perceive the necessity of investigating the principle or rationale of their operation; nor did we expect that Mr. Banister, after having disclaimed every idea of writing for the speculatist, would undertake to determine this very difficult point. He has, however, turned philosopher, where, relying on his humble professions, we thought to find him a mere practical farmer; and he has decided (p. 40.) that 'nitre is the *primum mobile* of vegetation.'

Wheat, being of all grain the most essential to human sustenance, is the subject of a long chapter in the second book; and, as Mr. B. has deduced his knowlege of its culture from the experience of thirty years, his observations are worthy of attention. Here the reader will be struck on being told, in the outset, that 'in a fruitful year the growth of wheat is much larger than the consumption;' for he cannot but recollect that the general language (and from high authority) has lately been that we have *never* grown enough for our own use; yet, if we go back with Mr. Banister only through half of the years of his stated experience, we shall find that the ports have been open for the exportation of wheat, and, in course, that there is some justification of his assertion;—unless, indeed, it be maintained, in order to cover the operation of other causes, that, within the last five or six years, there has been a most enormous increase of population; as some have undertaken to prove.

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* Though chalk may be proper for a clay, we are not sure of the propriety of its application, as is afterward recommended, to a gravelly soil, even supposing it to be infested with springs. In this case, it should be first drained, and then good yard dung is the best manure.

It is remarked that wheat delights in a strong soil; that it is the most hardy of all grain; that it is observed to be in general most prolific after a frosty winter, and a hot dry summer; that there are two different species of wheat, the smooth or polled, and the rough or bearded; that the former, as producing the finest flour, (Mr. B. spells it *flower*,) is most generally cultivated, and is subdivided into white and red wheats; though, on certain strong wet lands, farmers find their account in sowing the bearded species called *rivets* and *cone* wheat;—and that the quantity of seed on rich land should not exceed 2½ bushels. The author, however, does not decide on the quantity requisite for all soils; which, he says, experience must determine; and here he takes occasion to digress into an abuse of systems of agriculture, and of Mr. Tull, whose schemes he pronounces idle and romantic, and whose drill and horse-hoeing husbandry he condemns. Mr. B. recommends the change of seed, and the feeding of wheat in the spring on strong and fertile lands. On the puzzling subject of *smut* in wheat, he inclines to the opinion that this disease arises from a defect in the seed; which his experiments seem to justify. His remarks on natural fertility, or on what some farmers term *yielding land*, in opposition to that which obtains a forced fertility, manifest practical knowlege, and convey useful information.

'There is this difference between land by nature fertile, and that which has, from a state of poverty, been brought to bear large burthens of straw: for whereas the straw growing on the first mentioned soil, is intrinsically firm and compact, and therefore not often lodged so early as to endanger the crop, and the ears are usually well set and of a considerable length, so that on this land (a rich loam) it is no uncommon circumstance to grow five quarters of wheat per acre without the application of manure, or intervention of a fallow: a chalky or gravelly soil on the contrary, though from good management and by a liberal application of manure, it may be brought to produce a large proportion of straw, so as to exhibit an appearance of a crop of wheat equal to that on the rich land; and though this luxuriancy in the growth of the straw may continue throughout the summer, and the land having been treated in a husbandlike manner, may be free from the incumbrance of poppy and other weeds (the usual produce of a wet summer on these soils); yet will the corn be generally lodged so long before harvest, that the crop will by no means be adequate to the flattering appearance which it made throughout the winter; nor, although it should not be lodged, and the burthen of straw be very large, perhaps nearly equal to that on the loamy soil, yet will the produce be proportionable to the intrinsic nature of the land, and not nearly equal to that on the rich soil; for the dung and tillage which caused the straw to be so very luxuriant, will fail of producing a length of ear and an increase in the berry; so that if the straw should yield abundantly well, three quarters or three quarters and a half on this land may be accounted a good crop; a plain indication, that although poor land in the hands of a judicious and intelligent husbandman, may be made to produce double the quantity of grain it would have brought if badly managed; yet it can never be rendered equal to the natural fertility of a rich soil.'

Mr. Banister then enumerates the kinds of weeds with which wheat crops are infested; remarks on the effects of weather in harvest; and points out the method of ascertaining the value of samples at market.

Barley, and the other species of grain mentioned in the head title of Book II. are also separately discussed in this judicious Synopsis.

Mr. B. does not encourage the farmer to be very liberal in the cultivation of potatoes; because he conceives that the frequent planting of them is injurious to the fertility of the soil.

The book on Grasses contains many valuable hints respecting their culture: but we must pass it with this slight notice, and refer those who are desirous of cultivating woold, or hops *, to the mass of information here offered to them.

In the last book, which is subdivided into twenty-two chapters, the author treats of upland and lowland meadows;—of marshes for mowing;—of orchard hay and orchard ground;—of pastures;—of marsh land;—of horses—of their diseases, the cholic or gripes, colds, farcy, fevers, grease, staggers, strains, strangles, strangury, vivers or ivers, broken wind, wind galls, worms, and yellows;—of oxen, of cows for butter and for suckling;—of weaning calves;—of cows kept for the immediate profit of their milk;—of the diseases of cows and oxen, as lax or scouring, loss of the cud, yellows, loore or foul, and staling blood;—of sheep;—of suckling house lamb—of grass lambs;—of marsh sheep;—of swine;—of fences live and dead, and ditches.

From the preceding account, it will be seen that this Synopsis is a manual of husbandry, which every one who is entering on the business of farming should be solicitous of consulting. Impressed with a conviction of the importance of economy in country business, Mr. Banister concludes with some particular directions respecting yearly servants' and labourers—the stable—the barn—the farming implements—and

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* They were first planted in England in 1511; and they were once prohibited by act of parliament as a destructive and noxious weed. The distich says,

> "Turkeys, carp, hops, pickerel, and beer,
> Came into England all in one year."

the

the seasons of seed-time and harvest. He writes indeed as an experienced man, and we can recommend his book as a safe and useful publication.

Art. VII. *General View of the Agriculture of the West Riding of Yorkshire.* Surveyed by Messrs. Rennie, Brown, and Shirreff, 1793. With Observations on the Means of its Improvement, and additional Information since received. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By Robert Brown, Farmer at Markle, near Haddington, Scotland. 8vo. pp. 430. 6s. Boards. Nicol. 1799.

The survey of this fertile and populous district was executed by the gentlemen named in the title, in the course of five weeks. They were all strangers, and unacquainted with a single individual: but they tell us that, by the recommendation of Sir John Sinclair, they not only obtained ample information, but met with that attention and kindness which manifested the hospitality and liberality of the inhabitants. Why *all* strangers were employed by the Board we are not told *. Though in some respects this circumstance may have its advantages, yet, without the greatest assiduity, a survey so performed is likely to be materially imperfect. It may be observed, however, that the practice of the Board, in circulating copies of the original Reports in the respective counties, to invite the remarks and corrections of intelligent men, previously to their being given to the public at large, must tend in some measure (though not completely) to remove the imperfections incident even to the most careful survey, made by professional men appointed for the purpose. Indeed, it may be fairly presumed that all the General Views, compiled from the returned corrected Reports, still contain a variety of errors and omissions: but we respect them as including a great mass of valuable information; as so many advances towards correct knowlege and general improvement.

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* When these gentlemen proceed to mention *the State of Property, and the Tenures on which it is held,* they confess their inability as strangers to discuss these points with accuracy. Though this may be a matter of no great importance, we are of opinion that they ought to have acquainted the Board with it; and, as it was possible that their insufficiency might manifest itself (which it has done) in other respects *, to have requested that a gentleman or two belonging to the Riding should be associated with them in making the survey. Why not take the necessary steps, in the first instance, to make the report as perfect as possible? Why appoint only strangers to such a work? We ask these questions without doubting the professional ability of the gentlemen employed.

* They could not push the Farmer, they say, on the subject of rent.

The West Riding of Yorkshire is stated to be 95 miles in length from east to west, 48 miles in breadth from south to north, and to contain 2450 square miles, or 1,568,000 statute acres. It is divided into nine wapentakes; its climate is on the whole moderate and healthy; and the average gauge of rain, at Sheffield, is 33 inches in a year. Its surface is very irregular, exhibiting every variety of soil; and underneath are found abundance of coal, lime, ironstone, and lead, with some copper. It is rich also in navigable rivers. Its population (according to the best accounts which these reporters could obtain,) is calculated at upwards of 400,000; and the annual expence of the poor is equal to one fifth of the rental. The greatest part of the Riding is freehold; it contains a considerable proportion of small proprietors: but some possess very extensive estates, the incomes from which, we here read with astonishment, 'it is *unnecessary* and *improper* to state.' The absurd timidity of such a declaration, if not absolutely condemned by the Board, ought never to have appeared in a work of this kind. Can the Duke of Norfolk, Earl Fitzwilliam, &c. be afraid of having the size and rent-rolls of their Yorkshire estates known to the public? If such statements were improper, the idea of county surveys ought to be abandoned. What is their utility, if knowlege be *unnecessary* and *improper?*

The *Farm Houses* are stated to be in most cases inconveniently situated, and the husbandmen and labourers are said to be indifferently accommodated: but Lord Hawke, we are informed, has lately erected (the place is not specified) a suite of farm offices, which may serve as a pattern to his neighbours. Small farms prevail, which is considered here as an obstacle to the improvement of the Riding. Supposing them to exist to a *great* extent, it may have this effect: but it ought to be remembered that, were there no small farms, no small agricultural capitals could be employed, and markets could not be so well supplied with the smaller produce of farms. A great agriculturist may deem the profit arising from 50 acres beneath his notice: but it may satisfy a man of more moderate ambition, who may be content to furnish the market with small quantities for small buyers.

No information is conveyed on the subject of *Rent* (the cunning Yorkshire farmers would not let these strangers into that secret); and as to tithes, in consequence of a letter from Sir John Sinclair, the reporters professedly avoid all discussion: dismissing the subject with merely giving it as their opinion, 'that the interest of the country is concerned in having them regulated as soon as possible [*].'—A small proportion of the land in the Riding is let on leases: but three fourths of the farmers are only yearly tenants; a circumstance obviously inimical to agricultural improvement.

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[*] In other places, the same idea is suggested.

In the construction of *Agricultural Instruments*, the West Riding of Yorkshire is very deficient; if we except the threshing machine, which prevails in this district, and of which a very full account is given. These gentlemen strongly recommend the general adoption of it, on the ground of dispatch, and saving of corn and money. Speaking from their own experience, they assert that, by Mr. Meikle's machine, under favourable circumstances, from 40 to 60 bushels of wheat may be threshed and cleaned in one hour; leaving no corn in the straw, which is a very material circumstance.

The chapter on *Gardens* and *Orchards* is very short: but it judiciously recommends that every cottager should have one-sixteenth of an acre for a garden; and it informs us that there is a species of plumb, called the winesour, raised in this district, which sells, when sound, for 21 s. per peck; that is, *four guineas per bushel!*

The *Waste Lands* in this district, capable of cultivation, are calculated to amount to 265,000 acres*; and a correspondent, who signs himself W. P. strongly urges their improvement, 'lest we *fight*, and *weave*, and *hammer*, till we have not bread to eat.'

Under the head of *Improvements*, draining, irrigation, and warping, (particularly the latter, where circumstances will allow it,) are recommended.

The chapter on *Live Stock* consists mostly of extracts from the letters of correspondents: but the reporters intersperse their opinions; and they conclude the section on Horses with thus maintaining that they are preferable in agriculture to oxen:

> 'The very strongest ox will not do the same work as a horse. He cannot be drove at the same step, nor will he work in like manner from day to day. He not only does less labour when employed, but must be refreshed with more rest, or else he would soon turn unfit for work altogether. This of course requires two pair of oxen, to do the work which will be performed by one pair of horses, and nearly the same capital stock will be necessary in both cases. Instead of maintaining two horses, you have four oxen to support, which certainly turns the scale. "Oh," but says the theorist, "a little straw will serve for the ox, whereas your horse cannot live without hay."—Straw for a working ox! very good indeed. If you work him like a horse, he must be maintained like a horse. He must have his hay and his turnips, and possibly his corn also, if he is kept at

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* In addition to these, 140,000 are stated to be incapable of improvement, unless by planting.

hard work. That working oxen are not always supported in this manner, we chearfully grant; but how are they wrought? In many places six, eight, even a dozen, are yoked in a team: we here speak of the northern parts of Scotland, where oxen are more generally used than in any part of the island. In a word, oxen cannot be used for dispatch like horses, and, in critical seasons, when there is a necessity for a push, the value of the stock might be lost upon a single crop. The only point in favour of oxen, is their value at the latter end. Here no comparison can be made. Notwithstanding which, we adhere to our first opinion, that this is more than compensated, by the difference betwixt the value of their labour when employed. Indeed the sentiments of the greatest part of practical agriculturists coincide with those we here give, upon this branch of rural œconomy.'

Labour is stated to be high, from the prevalence of manufactures; and a custom also prevails, of giving ploughmen drink twice a-day. This, it is thought, ought to be abolished by a compensation in wages: but, if this refreshment be necessary to the labourer, the master might suffer by giving money instead of it; and if it be unnecessary, it may be taken away without a compensation. The writer contends for the propriety of paying husbandmen their wages partly in kind; and we are of opinion that either this practice should prevail, or that agricultural wages should be regulated by the price of bread-corn: but it seems to be a deviation from this principle, and also to be bad policy, to substitute a commutation for necessary refreshment: since it may be presumed that the money would be saved, and less work be done.

On the subject of Manufactures, we find a long section, from which we shall give a short extract:

> 'The manufactures of the West Riding are numerous and valuable, and comprehend broad and narrow cloths of all qualities, shalloons, calimancoes, flannels, and every branch of woollen goods. The manufacture of these articles is carried on at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, Halifax, and Huddersfield, and in the country adjoining to these places, to an astonishing extent. The whole wool of the district is not only wrought up in these manufactures, but immense quantities are also purchased in the conterminous counties for the same purpose.
>
> 'While the people in the heart of the district are thus employed in manufacturing woollen goods, those of the southern parts are engaged in carrying on manufactures no less valuable, and fully as important. At Sheffield and its neighbourhood, every kind of cutlery and plated goods are manufactured; and so eminent are the artizans in their different professions, that no other place is able to compete with them in the manufacturing of these articles. Sheffield has been a staple place for knives for more than three hundred years, as may be inferred from Chaucer, who says in his poems,
>
> "A Sheffield whittle bore he in his hose."

And Leland observes, that great numbers of smiths and cutlers lived in those parts when he wrote, which was in the reign of Henry VIII.

'Rotherham, in the neighbourhood of Sheffield, is a place famous for iron works, similar to those carried on at Carron, in Scotland. We here saw a part of the stupendous iron bridge lately erected over the river Ware, at Sunderland, which was executed by the Messrs. Walkers, proprietors of these works.' The merit and ingenuity of these gentlemen, deserve every mark of public encouragement.

'The establishment of manufactures in the West Riding has been the principal cause of its present wealth. It is difficult to ascertain the period when they were first introduced, but there is reason to suppose, it was about the beginning of the fifteenth century.'

The remainder of the Report we shall leave to speak for itself. As the Survey was confessedly made in haste, and as the statements here made are founded in a great measure on hearsay evidence, we think that the reporters are not sufficiently qualified to suggest the surest means of improving the district. Many of their remarks are judicious, and evince much reflection, as well as practical knowlege: but they had not opportunities for particular observation and inquiry; and blame attaches somewhere for exhibiting so crude and indigested a publication as this is in many respects, as a General View of the West Riding of Yorkshire. County Reporters should be attentive and patient in their investigation, and accurate in their details.

ART. VIII. *The Favorite Village*, a Poem. By James Hurdis, D.D. Professor of Poetry, Oxford. 4to. pp. 210. Printed at Bishopstone, Sussex, at the Author's own Press. Sold by Johnson, London, price 6s. sewed. 1800.

THE author of this performance here undertakes to celebrate the *pleasures* afforded by his native village, in all seasons of the year; and he has fulfilled his task with that unvarying simplicity of diction, and that peculiar minuteness of description, which characterize his former writings *. The attempt is pleasing, and congenial with true poetical feeling; for the votary of the Muses is at home only in the country:

"*Sordidaque ir parvis otia rebus amat.*"

The poem opens with a descriptive view of the village; from which we shall extract the address to the church:

'Say, ancient edifice, thyself with years
Grown grey, how long upon the hill has stood
Thy weather-braving tower, and silent mark'd
The human leaf inconstant bud and fall?

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxxxi. p. 241. and N. S. vol. iii. p. 51. vi. p. 278. xv. p. 311. xviii. p. 96. &c.

The generations of deciduous man——
How often hast thou seen them pass away?
How often has thy still surrounding sward
Yawn'd for the fathers of the peopled vale
And closed upon them all? Thy during fane
How often has it shed the dew of grace
On the mute infant, and received him soon
A coffin'd elder silver-lock'd with age?
O tell me, rev'rend structure, what events
Of awful import on the tide of time
Have floated by thee, as the bubble vain?
What armies on that distant hill engaged
To leave those scars of war upon its brow?
What blood was shed, and why? and where sleep now
The wrathful combatants of either host?'

To this we shall add the description of a great rarity, the *Poet's own house:*

' Enough of *painful pleasure.* Now alive,
Thee let me sing, still mansion of my birth.
The swelling instep of the mountain's foot
Above the vale just lifts thee. Thy trim gate,
Thy candid aspect and pale-chimneyed roof
Some eminence bespeak, and mark thee chief
Of the lone hamlet that behind thee squats.
Thou seem'st a bride, and this thy nuptial day,
And these thy mute attendants less attired.
Graceful to them thy fair ingenuous face
And bolder footstep, but not less to thee
Their modest air becoming. Ev'ry roof,
Or farm or cottage, ev'ry tree and shrub,
Pasture and garden plot, which tread thy heel
Descending from the hill, thy charms improve.
I see where Flora her full lap of sweets
Has strewed before thee, prodigally kind.
I mark the wreath laburnum without hand
Weaves for thy brow, the lilac tuft sublime
That shades thy temples, and the nodding flow'rs
Of rose and woodbine which his leaf o'ertop
To screen thine eyelids from the western beam.
Beauty concealed is beauty thrice improved.
And plainness self, if plainness be thy lot,
Is not to be reproved, when nature thus
Adorns deformity with flowery charm.'—

' Alone, of men, dwells here the thoughtful bard.
Here, on the mountain stationed, to the deep,
That proudly thund'ring on his one hand foams,
The lyre's indignant chorus sweeps he now;
Now to the peaceful variegated weald,
That underlies his other, tinkles soft
Descriptive admiration of her charms.

He sings her every steeple, farm, and field,
Till, like the prospect, his expiring song,
Mellowed and softened, steals away from sense,
And ill-perceived runs melting into air.'

When the author departs from such familiar sketches, and attempts the grander features of nature, he betrays a want of skill. The following description of a storm at sea might have been composed purposely for the illustration of a new treatise on the *bathos*:

'His ivory tooth unsheathed, his sullen bark,
And fiery look delirious, symptoms all
Of madness imminent! Lo! as we speak,
The wolfish monster kindles into rage!
Enormous mastiff, how he gnaws his chain
And struggles to be free, fast bound by fate,
And never more to be let loose on man!
Aloud he bellows, with indignant paw
Dances upreared, and menaces the foot
Of earth with trembling diffidence protruded.
Lo! the saliva of his deafening tongue
Her pebbled instep stains! his rugged coat
Is whiten'd o'er with foam, wasted amiss
In the vain effort of his hoarse assault!'

This is the very essence of Blackmore, and the resemblance is not closed with this passage; which will be sufficient, however, for our exemplification.—As this species of bad poetry seems to be again raising its head among us, we shall lay before the reader a contrast between the present writer and Thomson, in the view of a winter-storm, where an emulation of Thomson was probably intended:

'At length the long-expected tempest comes,
His ancient phrenzy has the maniac deep
Seized, and with loud reverberating foot
He dances rampant in his thund'ring hall.
His gloomy frown that darkens earth and heaven,
And foamy gnashing jaw, foretel ere long
Madness enormous to ensue. E'en now
He gnaws with keen exasperated tooth
The rock that holds him shorebound to his seat,
Buffets the pier and basis of the cliff,
Seizes the tilting triple-masted bark,
Light as a feather in his pow'rful grasp,
Kindles her sleeping thunder, and enjoys
Her frequent flashes of nocturnal woe.
Wellnigh omnipotent, on the sunk reef,
Where roars the conflict of eternal storm
And wave o'ertumbles wave in foamy fall,
He tosses furious her reluctant crew,
Snatches the quiver from the hand of heaven,

Scatters the glaring lightnings o'er their heads,
And pours the forceful thunder-peal around.
Pleased at her fate, he aggravates the storm,
Bellows profound, roars horrible delight,
And bids the billow oft repeat the blow,
Till with unchainable gigantic arm
He thrusts her headlong to the deepmost Hell.'

et us oppose to this figure of a dancing, whirling, bellowing, nping demon, fit only for a magic lanthorn, the noble and ıle picture of the convulsions of nature, exhibited by the ıor of the Seasons:

" When from the pallid sky the sun descends,
With many a spot, that o'er his glaring orb
Uncertain wanders, stain'd; red fiery streaks
Begin to flush around. The reeling clouds
Stagger with dizzy poise, as doubting yet
Which master to obey: while rising slow,
Blank, in the leaden-colour'd east, the moon
Wears a wan circle round her blunted horns.
Seen thro' the turbid fluctuating air,
The stars obtuse emit a shivered ray;
Or frequent seem to shoot athwart the gloom,
And long behind them trail the whitening blaze.
Snatch'd in short eddies, plays the wither'd leaf;
And on the flood the dancing feather floats.
With broadened nostrils to the sky up-turn'd,
The conscious heifer snuffs the stormy gale.
Even as the matron, at her nightly task,
With pensive labour draws the flaxen thread,
The wasted taper and the crackling flame
Foretell the blast. But chief the plumy race,
The tenants of the sky, its changes speak.
Retiring from the downs, where all day long
They pick'd their scanty fare, a blackening train
Of clamorous rooks thick urge their weary flight,
And seek the closing shelter of the grove;
Assiduous, in his bower, the wailing owl
Plies his sad song. The cormorant on high
Wheels from the deep, and screams along the land.
Loud shrieks the soaring hern; and with wild wing
The circling sea-fowl cleave the flaky clouds.
Ocean, unequal press'd, with broken tide
And blind commotion heaves; while from the shore,
Eat into caverns by the restless wave,
And forest-rustling mountain comes a voice,
That solemn sounding bids the world prepare.
Then issues forth the storm with sudden burst,
And hurls the whole precipitated air
Down, in a torrent. On the passive main
Descends th' ethereal force, and with strong gust

Turns from its bottom the discolour'd deep.
Thro' the black night that sits immense around,
Lash'd into foam, the fierce conflicting brine
Seems o'er a thousand raging waves to burn:
Mean-time the mountain-billows, to the clouds
In dreadful tumult swell'd, surge above surge,
Burst into chaos with tremendous roar,
And anchor'd navies from their stations drive,
Wild as the winds across the howling waste
Of mighty waters: now th' inflated wave
Straining they scale, and now impetuous shoot
Into the secret chambers of the deep,
The wintry *Baltick* thundering o'er their head.
Emerging thence again, before the breath
Of full-exerted heaven they wing their course,
And dart on distant coasts; if some sharp rock,
Or shoal insidious break not their career,
And in loose fragments fling them floating round."

We live in times which unfortunately demand the utmost vigilance of criticism, to suppress the growth of false taste; and we are sorry that so respectable a writer as the present Bard should require, by the weight of his authority, the interposition of our censure, to oppose the mischiefs which might ensue from his example. A Professor of Poetry ought, at least, to write verses free from remarkable faults, if he should be unable to reach the higher flights of the Muse; otherwise, what must we expect from his pupils?

The following line contains a violation of accent, which could not have passed unnoticed even in a more finished poem:

'The sight of Winter's sùperb ocean left.'—

In p. 109, we meet with an unaccountable barbarism:

'E'en to the *kicksey* vulnerable erst.'—

In the description of the red-breast's visit, the author has again coped with Thomson, and again (we think) he has failed. As we cannot quote the long passage to which we refer, we shall only notice the following clause:

————— 'Beneath my chair
Sit *budge*, a *feathery bunch.*'———

We appeal to our readers whether this be a style suited to the dignity not only of this author's literary rank, but of any correct English writer?

Amid these instances of false taste, which we deem it necessary to point out, we meet with examples of a capacity for a purer strain of poetry. Of this number is the following passage, which describes a moonlight evening after a thunder-storm:

'Lo! in the glowing east the cloud sublime
Lifting its arduous and illumin'd head
High above highest earth, a pile superb
Of vapour, wrapping in its smoky skirts
Heav'n's everduring threshold, and the beam
Of day's clear orb resplendent from its folds
Reflecting glorious. With the falling sun
Slow sinks the pomp away, and while his orb
In flaky redness sets, and fills the west
With fiery fragments of disparted cloud,
The last-apparent summit of the storm
The ruddy hue imbibes and sanguine glows;
Till, day withdrawn and the vex'd æther hush'd,
The tempest all subsides and dies away,
And the pure heaven displays an ardent moon
Swimming self-balanc'd through the blue profound.'

Had the poem contained many other lines in this style, our review of it would have worne a different complexion. In addition, however, to other objections, the great predilection of this writer for "*similies unlike*" prevents us from complimenting him highly on his labours. In reading descriptions of the charms of simple nature, it is impossible not to revert to the delicious melody of Thomson and Akenside, that conveys to us the emotions with which those great poets were impressed, with almost undiminished force:—but, in performances like the present, where the objects are in masquerade, where the ocean is *a dog*, and the apple-blossom is *a bride walking home from church*[*], attention is fatigued without being gratified. We could have been agreeably engaged in attending the worthy Professor in his lounge to the Downs, and even to the church-yard and the saw-pits, had he described them in appropriate terms:—but such is the singularity of his figures, that he seems to have drawn them from the study of Cowley's *Puny*[†], instead of from the models of genuine poetry.

We feel real regret in expressing such a general opinion of a composition which exhibits, in many passages, sentiments truly estimable, and in others talents truly poetic: but our duty to the public is paramount to every other consideration.

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[*] This reminds us of the similies invented for texts of Scripture, which are mentioned by Dr. Echard. Among the rest, he says, there is a text which resembles *a man going to Jericho.*

[†] See "The Cutter of Coleman Street," in Cowley's Works.

Art. IX. *Select Sermons*, translated from the French of Bossuet, Bishop of Meaux. To which is prefixed an Essay on the Eloquence of the Pulpit in England. 12mo. pp. 85. 3s. sewed. Clarke. 1800.

The good sense, the liberal spirit, and the worthy views, displayed in the essay prefixed to this work, must prepossess every virtuous mind in favour of the writer. His flowing and highly animated style is less chaste, indeed, than our taste would have dictated: but, when the seeds of excellence, the proofs of industry, and the marks of judgment are so manifest, the hand of criticism should be arrested, and the language of encouragement employed.

The author exhorts our young clergy to infuse into their compositions that life and *unction* which so much distinguished, in times past, the sermons of our neighbours. Few will dispute the propriety of this recommendation within due limits; and though we take no pleasure in arraigning the times, and have no propensity that is gratified by gloomy pictures of them, yet we think that we are warranted in saying that there never was a period in which new aids to virtue, and new supports to religion, could be more seasonably introduced.

The brief character of the generality of English sermons, here given, is but too well drawn: 'to borrow an illustration from sculpture, an English sermon may be said to be compared to the statue of a correct but unimpassioned artist: the form displays an apt proportion of parts; but no soul warms, awakens, inspirits the dead marble.'

The following observations well deserve serious attention from candidates for orders:

> 'Let the young Ecclesiatic, while he stands on the threshold of the sanctuary, undergo a self-examination: if the silent, but heartfelt invitation, if the lonely whispering voice of predilection, do not prompt him to ascend the seat of the preacher; if an enthusiastic ardour does not elevate him when he is commenting upon the sacred text; if he carries to his holy task, a supine reluctance; he may rest assured, that eloquent Nature has not predestined him to occupy a place among the small number of her elect; that she has not kindled for him the sacred flame; and that to him these words of Danté may be applied:
>
> A cui natura,
> Non scaldo ferro mai, ne batte ancude.
>
> 'But, if the clerical student is conscious that Nature has imprinted on his mind a peculiar bias; if, amidst the claims of active life, she urges his power to one peculiar aim; if, deeply affected with the beauties of profane eloquence, he glows with an enthusiasm till then unknown at the energy of sacred oratory; if an emulative fire kindles

in his breast at the recollection of our church-worthies, the spiritual founders, and the successive propagators of the establishment, those immoveable columns, which upheld amidst the bursting tempest the sacred roof! if, stealing from the haunts of man, he invocates the Holy Spirit to descend from above, exuberant of grace, and rich in his sevenfold energy; if the sacred fountain of tears lodged in the recesses of the soul, is ready, at Nature's call, to overflow with affectionate effusion: these indications testify that he is designated by Religion to the office of the sublimest import, the dispensation of her holy word.'

The account, here subjoined, of one of those sermons which, in the course of the last spring, excited such eminent attention in London, will add to the wish already so generally felt, that they may be made public:

'In St. James's Church, on the seventh of last month, (March, 1800,) I heard a subject of this nature treated in the most luminous and happy manner: the subject of the historic discourse was the decapitation of St. John the Baptist. The eloquent Prelate drew with a masterly hand, the characters of all the personages concerned in that drama. The glowing zeal and undaunted courage of the Baptist, the vindictive spirit that reigned in the bosom of Herodias, were displayed in the most striking point of view. In the delineation of the character of the young woman, compassion softened the strain of the Orator, the timid nature of the daughter was vividly contrasted with the imperious command of the mother, and with a lenient hand he flung over the part the daughter acted in this tragedy, the veil of filial obedience. But on Herod, the sacred Orator poured the full torrent of his indignant zeal, and pointed out, in the most convincing, energetic language, that his adulterous intercourse with Herodias was the cause, at first imperceptible, that led him from step to step to the completion of the crime of murder. He then noticed the frequency of divorces, which indicated an alarming dissolution of manners, and which he awfully represented as sufficient to awaken the divine forbearance, and call down the vengeance of Heaven on this country.'

The essay concludes with the following novel proposal:

'The new Royal Institute proclaims the liberality of modern patronage; why might not a fund be established for the purpose of awakening an emulative disposition in the rising race of preachers, and of calling forth dormant and inactive capacities? Several persons of the most enlightened discernment, with whom I have conversed upon this subject, concur with me in thinking that an endowment of the nature I am suggesting would be productive of the most salutary and early effects: Sacred Eloquence would assume the honours to which she would then be entitled, and take the lead in the procession of talents.'

The admirers of the masterly Bossuet are much indebted to the author of this tract, (whom we understand to be Mr. Jerningham,)

ham,) for the spirited translation of some of his animated discourses, which follows the *Essay* just noticed; and they already owe him thanks for a former selection from this celebrated writer, mentioned in our last volume, p. 445. We need not now enlarge on this subject; nor will many extracts from these compositions be expected from us: but we cannot refrain from making one or two quotations.

The following impressive address occurs in a sermon preached before Louis XIV.

'While your Majesty looks down from that eminence to which Providence has raised you; while you behold all your flourishing provinces reaping the harvest of happiness, and enjoying the blessings of peace; while you behold your throne encompassed with the affections of a loyal people, what have you to fear? where is that enemy who can injure your felicity? Yes, Sir! there is an enemy who can injure your felicity; that enemy is yourself; that enemy is the situation you adorn; that enemy is the glory which encircles you! It is no easy task to submit to the rule that seems to submit to us. Where is the canopy of sufficient texture to screen you from the penetrating and scorching beams of unbounded prosperity?'

The subsequent eloquent passage is taken from a sermon on the crucifixion:

'Religious truth was exiled from the earth, and idolatry sat brooding over the moral world. The Egyptians, the fathers of philosophy, the Grecians, the inventors of the fine arts, the Romans, the conquerors of the universe, were all unfortunately celebrated for the perversion of religious worship, for the gross errors they admitted into their belief, and the indignities they offered to the true religion. Minerals, vegetables, animals, the elements became objects of adoration; even abstract visionary forms, such as fevers and distempers, received the honours of deification; and to the most infamous vices, and dissolute passions, altars were erected. The world, which God had made to manifest his power, seemed to have become a temple of idols, where every thing was god but God himself!

'The mystery of the crucifixion was the remedy the Almighty ordained for this universal idolatry. He knew the mind of man, and knew that it was not by reasoning an error must be destroyed, which reasoning had not established. Idolatry prevailed by the suppression of reason, by suffering the senses to predominate, which are apt to clothe every thing with the qualities with which they are affected. Men gave the Divinity their own figure, and attributed to him their vices and passions. Reasoning had no share in so brutal an error. It was a subversion of reason, a delirium, a phrensy. Argue with a phrenetic person, you do but the more provoke him, and render the distemper incurable. Neither will reasoning cure the delirium of idolatry. What has learned antiquity gained by her elaborate discourses? her reasonings so artfully framed? Did Plato, with that eloquence which was styled divine, overthrow one single altar where those monstrous divinities were worshipped? Experience has shewn that the overthrow of idolatry could not be the work of reason alone. Far from committing to human wisdom the cure of such a malady, God completed its confusion by the mystery of the cross. Idolatry (if rightly understood) took its rise from that profound self-attachment inherent in our nature. Thus it was that the Pagan mythology teemed with deities who were subject to human passions, weaknesses, and vices. When the mysterious cross displayed to the world an agonizing Redeemer, incredulity exclaimed it was *foolishness!* But the darkening sun, nature convulsed, the dead arising from their graves, said it was wisdom!'

We think that, from these specimens, the English reader will wish to be made farther acquainted with the compositions of this great ornament of the Gallican church; the ablest advocate of the catholic cause, and one of the finest writers whom modern times have produced.

Art. X. *Observations on Mr. Simmons's Detection,* &c. &c. Part Second. By John Hull, M.D. 8vo. pp. 473. 9s. sewed. Bickerstaff. 1800.

The first part of this work was summarily noticed, in our Review for October 1799, p. 234, as an intemperate publication, which added nothing to our knowlege of the subject in dispute. In this large sequel, the author has undertaken to answer several objections which have been advanced against the Cæsarean operation, and to give a more general statement of the cases in which it has been employed. On this occasion, his attack is principally directed against Dr. Osborn, whose success with the crotchet has given such a shock to the defenders of the Cæsarean section.—some observations are also levelled at our criticisms.

Dr. Osborn's celebrated crotchet-case stands so directly in the way of the contested operation, that the present author is reduced to the necessity of denying the accuracy of Dr. O's statement of the facts. This is a very convenient mode of removing a difficulty, when it can be adopted: but we apprehend that Dr. Osborn's character must place him far above the suspicion of either inventing or suppressing any material circumstance, even if the event of the case had been as unsuccessful as it was remarkably happy. If any medical man should doubt the truth of the facts, because he despairs of succeeding under similar circumstances, he only pays an involuntary tribute to Dr. Osborn's dexterity and perseverance.

We shall pass over a large portion of disputatious matter, till we arrive at Dr. H.'s strange assertion, 'that the life of the *fœtus in utero* is of more value to society than that of the mother!' (p. 135.) In this part of his book, the Doctor has most angrily attacked Dr. Osborn's very rational position, that the loss of existence is comparatively trifling to a being like the *fœtus in utero*, without ideas, without appetites or desires, and probably possessing very little sensation. The fœtus, before birth, may be considered as an animal in a torpid state, but deprived of respiration, and exerting a very partial action of the heart and arteries. To compare this vegetating existence with a Being in the full possession of animal and mental power is erroneous in the extreme. Whatever advantage the author may suppose he has gained over particular expressions of Dr. Osborn, we think that Dr. H. is totally wrong in the general argument.—To illustrate his reasoning, Dr. Hull has stated a case, which we shall extract for the amusement of the reader:

> 'Supposing all the females of one generation inhabiting an island, unknown to, and, consequently, totally unconnected with any other nation, to have their *pelves* so extremely distorted as to render it impossible for any of them to be delivered, unless by employing the crotchet, in which case all the children would be destroyed, but most of the mothers preserved, or by performing the Cesarean operation, in which case nearly all the children might be preserved, but many of the mothers would lose their lives, it is evident that this island would be completely depopulated on the death of the present generation, if the former mode of delivery were universally adopted; and that the population of the island might reasonably be expected to be supported, if the latter operation were, in every instance, had recourse to; and, therefore, the interests of that community would require, that the preference should be given to the Cesarean section.'

To make this supposition complete, we must beg leave to add that, if a supporter of Dr. H.'s opinions were to attend all the women thus deformed, and, operating on them, were to deliver each of a dead child; and if the mothers afterward perished by the usual result of the Cæsarean operation, in the course of a few hours; the depopulation of the island would become physically certain: not even a Cæsarean Operator would be left;—like that sanguinary tragedian, who declared that not a candle-snuffer should survive the fifth act of his play.

Perhaps we may be allowed to untie this Gordian knot formed by Dr. Hull; what if a practitioner, possessed of inventive talents, should descend on this unfortunate crooked island, and should propose the method of exciting premature delivery, which has been so fully established by the experience of Mr. Barlow of Bolton *? The horrible dilemma of Dr. Hull would not only be thus avoided, but even the use of the crotchet would be superseded, by an act which the parliament would undoubtedly pass, to rescue distorted females from the merciless hands of practitioners on the obsolete plan.

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* We shall soon give an account of this plan.

The author has collected, in the form of tables, a view of most of the cases in which the Cæsarean operation has been performed: but, as many of them are very ill authenticated, particularly those in which the patients are said to have undergone the operation several times, these tables cannot be regarded as furnishing *data*, on which an accoucheur can safely proceed.

After a long excursion, Dr. Hull returns to the charge against Dr. Osborn. It is really somewhat singular, that Dr. H. should imagine that he understands the case of Eliz. Sherwood, which he never saw, better than the gentleman who delivered her; and his scepticism respecting the recent narrative of a most respectable practitioner forms an extraordinary contrast to the facility with which he has swallowed the legends of Rousset. In this instance, *stat pro ratione voluntas.* For ourselves, we confess that we feel no hesitation in preferring the authority of Dr. Osborn to that of Rousset; whose work may be considered as belonging to the fabulous age of midwifery. Dr. Clarke's authority is also treated very disrespectfully, and (we think) improperly, in p. 398. Indeed he is almost taxed with the publication of a falsehood (p. 399). This mode of defending hypothesis against facts cannot succeed, when the persons whose credit is impeached are at least as well known to the public as their accuser.—The attempt to refute the statements of these gentlemen, by pulling the skull of a fœtus through a hole in a board, may excite the reader's mirth, but will not convince his judgment.

As Dr. Hull, then, has not been able to produce any fresh instance of success in this operation, we conceive that our opinion of its fatality cannot be retracted. It appears to us that it would be highly blameable in any practitioner to venture again on the performance of the Cæsarean section, from the evidence at present before the public; and if our authority be of any weight in the dispute, we shall certainly discourage the operation, unless some facts of a different nature from any that have yet been presented shall be produced by its partizans.

ART. XI. *The History of the Anglo-Saxons*, from their first Appearance above the Elbe, to the Death of Egbert; with a Map of their antient Territory. By Sh. Turner. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE early history of our Saxon ancestors is as deeply immersed in darkness as that of the many other nations of the antient and modern world, whom this obscurity has tempted to claim improbable and fabulous antiquity; and the writers

of

of Saxon story have not neglected to avail themselves of the opportunity, to dignify or to burlesque their subject by substituting the creations of fancy for historic results. Like those whose fabulous tales of Egyptian, Chinese, and Indian antiquity excite the smile of contempt from philosophy and reason, the authors who have undertaken to treat of the origin of the Saxons have affected to trace them to times in which they *could not* have existed :—a few only have been contented with following them to within a few centuries of the flood :—many ascend in the pursuit to the grandsons of Noah ;—while others insist on regarding them as his immediate offspring.

It is of little importance, at this day, who might have been the progenitors of the antient Saxons; or within what degree of consanguinity they were related to Adam. It is therefore a waste of erudition and sagacity, to employ those qualifications in refuting the fables which have been devised to support hypotheses on that subject :—but it is certainly of moment to investigate and ascertain the real history of that people; inasmuch as their laws, their institutions, and their language have no slight connexion with and influence on the manners, institutions, and language of England, at the present time. The work before us, then, on this account, claims respectful attention.

In treating of Saxon history, Mr. Turner has had several predecessors :—but he says that 'the inattentive rapidity with which our most esteemed writers have run over this part of our history' left it still a promising field for learned industry. In his opinion, 'that period of the Anglo-Saxon history, which preceded the invasion of England, was worthy of greater attention than had yet been bestowed on it; not only because to contemplate the infancy of celebrated nations is among the most pleasing occupations of human curiosity, but because it is peculiarly important to us, the posterity of the Anglo-Saxons, to know as much as possible of our continental ancestors.' He therefore has condensed into the first book of the work all the information that could be collected on this point; and he brings down their history to the middle of the fifth century, when they invaded Britain.—In the second and concluding book, he relates that part of their history which contains their transactions in Britain, until the invasion by the Danes in the year 835.

Having dismissed those fanciful hypotheses which throw an air of ridicule on the claims of Saxon antiquity, Mr. Turner proceeds to offer some remarks of his own on the same subject; resting certainly on a more rational foundation :

'The languages which prevail in Europe seem to be the ramifications of three principal languages, in which the ancient inhabitants of Europe unquestionably conversed. These original instruments of human conversation, in the western and northern regions of the world, have been denominated the Celtic, the Gothic, and the Sclavonic.

'Of the Celtic the branches were the Ancient British, the Erse, the Irish, the Cornish, the Armorican, and the Manks: a visible similarity of structure and of words, in the opinion of many, connects these together. They differ, as all dialects differ in countries separated from each other, maintaining intercourse with other nations, and invaded by various enemies with fluctuating fortune; but philologers have classed them under one and the same genus.

'Another collection of languages, whose affinity is apparent and undisputed, has been arranged under the term Gothic. It consists of the ancient Saxon, and its children or cousins, the English, the Lowland Scotch, the Frisic, and the Belgic: it contains also the Franco-Theotisc and its descendants, the German, the Suabian, and the Swiss: it also comprizes the Icelandic, the Norse, the Danish, the Swedish, and the Orkneyan. Undoubted monuments of the ancient British, the Saxon, and the Franco-Theotisc, in the state which they preserved before the ninth century, still remain for our examination. Many compositions of the old Icelandic, of the eleventh and preceding centuries, are also in being, from which every student of language can satisfy himself that the Celtic and the Gothic ought in none of their branches to be confounded with each other.

'The Sclavonic is a genus of languages which every one would separate from the preceding. The present Russian has been thought to be the most faithful specimen of the original Sclavonic. The Poles, the Bohemians, the Dalmatians, the Croatians, the Bulgarians, Carinthians, Moravians, and some other tribes adjacent, formerly used its various dialects. It prevailed in those parts of Europe where the antients placed the Sarmatæ. The numerous tribes who spoke the Sclavonic preserved their ancient name of Venedi long after their invasion of Germany, in the fifth or sixth century, though they were also called Slavi. Their successes enabled them to reach the Saxons and the Francs, but their conquests were terminated by the opposition of Charlemagne, and their incessant civil feuds.

'The incontrovertible fact of the existence in ancient Europe of at least three genera of languages, strongly distinguished from each other, conducts us safely to the conclusion, that the collections of nations who spoke them must have also differed in the chronology of their origin. As the Celtic tribes were found in the most western extremities of Europe, it is reasonable to infer that they visited it earlier than the others: so the Sclavonic people, residing about its eastern boundaries, may be fairly considered as the latest settlers. The Gothic states, from their position, claim justly an intermediate date. As they advanced westwards, the Celtæ retired before them. In the days of Cæsar, one of the Gothic tribes had even penetrated into Britain and Gaul, if not into Ireland. As the ramifications of the Goths spread towards the Germanic Ocean, the Sclavonic hordes flowed after them from Asia. The Saxon was one of the Gothic states, and it was as far west as the Elbe in the days of Ptolemy. The Saxons were therefore, in all likelihood, as ancient visitors of Europe as the Belgæ, the Germans, or any other Gothic tribe. Their situation seems to indicate that they moved among the foremost columns of the vast Gothic emigration; but the particular date of their arrival on the Elbe, or their particular derivation, it is impossible to prove, and therefore unprofitable to discuss.'

We shall make one more extract from this volume, by quoting the author's view of the state of Europe at the commencement of the 9th century:

'When Egbert attained the crown of Wessex, the most remarkable powers in Europe were the Northmen, the Francs, the Saracens, and the Pope.

'As the Northmen are essentially connected with the next period of our history, we will postpone our view of their situation until we reach the era of their most distinguished activity.

'In the beginning of the ninth century the empire of the Francs, produced and sustained by the genius of Charlemagne, almost monopolized the map of Europe. At the close of the fifth century, Clovis laid the foundation of the stupendous edifice. Before his reign, which commenced in 482, the Francs, like the Saxons during the Anglo-Saxon octarchy, had been separated into many independant governments. Clovis, the ruler of the Salian Francs, inherited only the island of the Batavians, and the ancient dioceses of Tournay and Arras. He surprised his age by a display of military energy and conduct, which not only broke the sceptres of every Francic sovereign, but also expelled from Gaul the Roman commander, who had retained Soissons, Rheims, Troyes, Beavais, and Amiens. With that success which superior talents usually command, Clovis extended his dominions, in 493, to the Seine, and in the next year to the Loire. The modern Alsace and Lorraine, with their adjacencies, were conquered from the Alemanni, and after a life of victory, he died in 511, presenting to the astonished world a compact monarchy of power, which from the Rhine reached to the Loire, and even stretched in parts to the Garonne and the Pyrenees.

'He left this vast territory divided between his four sons, who established the capitals of their different kingdoms at Rheims or Metz, Orleans, Paris, and Soissons; and although these princes and their successors, like all rivals in power, differed between themselves, and experienced various successes against each other, yet under their governments, whether united or discordant, the dominion of the Francs was on all sides enlarged. In Germany to their victorious sceptre Thuringia, including even Magdeburg, Helmstadt, and the south part of Franconia, and sometimes Bavaria, were subjected. In Gaul they obtained Burgundy, Provence, and whatever the Ostro-Goths had enjoyed between the Alps, the Rhone, and the Mediterranean, with part of Rætia; part of Spain was also wrested from the Visi-Goths. This enormous empire became united under one master in Clotarius the first, the surviving son of Clovis, in 558. What his children shared, the sword of the second Clotarius compelled again into one monarchy, in the possession of which he died in 628.

'After this period the empire of the Francs exhibited the phenomenon of the minister of the crown gradually acquiring an authority, which at last subverted the race of Clovis, and placed a new dynasty on the Francic throne. The sovereigns became dependents on the maires de palais their servants; weak princes, civil wars, and minorities, produced the spectacle so unusual in the western world. The great abilities of Pepin, the maire de palais of Austrasia in 687, who obtained the title of dux et princeps Francorum, and of his son Charles Martel, who deserves our blessings, as the hero selected by Providence to save Europe from a Mahomedan yoke, made the usurpations popular among the Francs. He died in 741. His sons divided his authority, but Pepin, the most fortunate or most worthy of the two, obtained the whole authority in 747, when his brother sought the cloister. In 752 his nominal sovereign was deposed, and the crown of France was placed on the head of Pepin.

'Pepin, the first maire de palais, who had ventured on the throne, died in 768. He left two sons, but his eldest, the renowned Charlemagne, soon acquired the united kingdom of the Francs, which for years he laboured to augment with a success atchieved by few. His campaigns were almost every where prosperous. In Italy he destroyed the kingdom of the Lombards; after a struggle of thirty-three years he reduced the Saxons; he conquered the prince who assumed the kingdom of Bavaria; he wrested part of Spain from the Saracens, and after a very perilous warfare he subdued the Huns and Avari, the modern Austrians and Hungarians. At length his powerful empire, from east to west, extended from the Ebro to the Vistula or the Elbe, and from north to south, from the dutchy of Beneventum to the Eyder. Possessed of the power which arose from this gigantic dominion, he died in 814.

'In the seventh century a man had arisen in Arabia, gifted with the ability to occasion an awful revolution in the mind and kingdoms of mankind. His disciples assailed society in Asia and Africa with the sword of irresistible enthusiasm. Religion and many governments fell victims to their martial and mental fury. Stimulated by unparalleled success to new enterprize, Europe, the last refuge of Christianity and of knowledge, was menaced by their battalions. In 713 Spain was conquered, and the victorious Musa meditated to obtain by his fanatic Saracens the kingdom of the Francs, Italy, and Germany. To atchieve this monstrous scheme they invaded France in 721, and in 732 seemed about to gratify their ambition, under the valiant Abderame, when Charles Martel fought the battle of the civilized world. Six days the fortune of man was in suspense; on the seventh his good genius triumphed; the Arabs experienced a ruinous defeat; they never resumed the conquest of Gaul; but they continued in the occupation of Spain.

'The papal power demands a momentary glance, because at this period it consummated its separation from the eastern empire, established its influence over the kings of Europe by the right which it assumed and exercised of conferring the dignity of emperor, and received from the policy or bounty of Charlemagne great territorial accessions. In the year 800, at the festival of Christmas, Charlemagne received the crown of empire from pope Leo the third, and was hailed as the pious Augustus, the great and pacific emperor of the Romans. Charlemagne had already, in 774, confirmed to the pope the gift of his father Pepin. This prince had presented to the Roman pontiff the exarchate of Ravenna, which he had conquered from the Lombards, the Marquisate of Ancona, and the cities of Bologna, Mantua, Cesenna, Modena, Regio, Parma, Piacenza, Ferrara, and Farnese. Charlemagne ratified and secured to the pope this splendid acquisition, and added the island of Corfu, the river of Genoa, the Upper Tuscany, the state of Urbino, and some other places. Thus the bishop of Rome was exalted from a spiritual dominion to territorial sovereignty. Power and revenue accrued to him from a domestic principality; he came to rank among temporal princes, and his authority continued to augment until it endangered the permanency of every potentate.

'Thus all the western regions of Europe were, in the year 800, possessed by four unequal states, but all of prime importance. The day of the Saracens had passed. The preponderance of Charlemagne and his successors effectually confined them to Spain; but they had been terrible, and if their neighbours had been weak, would still have been the lords of the world. Charlemagne was now the colossus which was annihilating the independance of Europe; but his grandeur was the result of his personal talents, and faded after his departure, until at length Germany was separated from France. The Northmen soon burst in terror from their lakes and marshes, and during the ninth century the infant civilization of Europe was trembling on the precipice of destruction. With slower but as fatal success the papal empire extended its poisoning influence over the noblest states of the western world; knowledge and religion withered under its debasing sway, and a long night of ignorance and vice, perpetuated by its tyranny, enveloped the human race.'

Without descending to minute criticisms on this work, we shall observe that, in tracing the authenticated facts of Saxon story, in discriminating between the marvellous and the probable, in the arrangement and description of those events which he records, and in depicting those characters which he designs to hold up to admiration or to infamy, Mr. Turner's erudition and judgment maintain a respectable station. Yet there may be instances which manifest a deficiency of patient and deep investigation, and others which betray too implicit a confidence in the authority of some antient writers. His work, however, is dignified by the mien and port of history. His style possesses the excellences and defects which frequently characterize a young writer: it is generally vigorous, animated, and ornamented; often stiff, pompous, and affected.—We learn that a second volume of the work is shortly to appear.

I. *Report of the Commission of Arts to the First Consul Bo-* , *on the Antiquities of Upper Egypt*, and the present State of Temples, Palaces, Obelisks, Statues, Tombs, Pyramids, Philœ, Syene, Thebes, Tentyris, Latopolis, Memphis, olis, &c. &c. from the Cataracts of the Nile to Cairo: n accurate Description of the Pictures with which they are ed, and the Conjectures that may be drawn from them, ing the Divinities to whom they were consecrated. Trans- rom the French of Citizen Ripaud, Librarian to the Insti- Egypt. 4to. and 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Debrett. 1800.

xperienced some disappointment from the *Memoirs re- to Egypt*, mentioned in our last Number, p.131. the pre- ort of M. Ripaud has made us amends by its particular nd by the promise of still more minute and splendid ion. Though our attachment to our own country, interest in the preservation of its commercial greatness, deprecate the political object of the French in their ptian expedition; yet we ardently hoped, as Bonaparte mpanied by a considerable number of literary and sci- en, that his temporary possession of a country so cele- n antient history, and so renowned for its stupendous es, would be productive of much curious information; the Members of the Egyptian Institute, enjoying a f security and a variety of advantages which no solitary could possibly obtain, would employ them in minutely g and taking exact admeasurements and drawings of is worth notice on the banks of the Nile. This, Eu- a right to expect from the French Literati and Artists. ve enjoyed their Eastern conquest long enough to an- st scientific purposes; and though we shall not be till we have inspected the maps, plans, elevations, and , taken by them in Egypt, we are induced to believe, present Report of the Librarian to the Institute, that e not been indolent in their department. Indeed, the of M. Ripaud is so amusing, that we shall be tempted considerable extracts from it. Some of his conjectures nfounded: the bold assertion respecting the vast anti- certain Egyptian structures may be considered as the his deistical prepossessions: he may have spoken too tuously of Norden, when he terms him *timid*, and his *nsignificant*;' and he may be wrong when he asserts respectable traveller '*visited** the island of Phyloe by of a lantern;' yet there will remain, in the work before

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true that he went to the island in the evening, but he ex- during the next morning.

us, much intrinsic merit. M. Ripauddoes not strike all preceding travellers and geographers prostrate to the earth, that he may drive his car triumphantly over them. He speaks very respectfully of Sicard and D'Anville; and while he mentions the works of Maillet, Vansleb, and Savary, as offering 'nothing that is true and useful,' he applauds *his* countryman Granger, and particularly discriminates *our* countryman Pococke as the most learned of all the Egyptian travellers; pronouncing that his descriptions approach the nearest to the truth. He even apologizes for the deficient information given in the works of former travellers, knowing the difficulties with which they unavoidably struggled.

The French Literati were in Egypt with an army of their own countrymen protecting them; they explored at leisure; they had a travelling library and apparatus; and different individuals were assigned to different departments. The work was thus arranged:

> 'Encamped near the site of the monuments, each of us engaged in that branch of the work which the habits and study of his life had rendered the most familiar to him: the views taken by Citizens Dutertre, Cécile, and Balsac, faithfully represent the actual state of the temples and palaces. Lepere the architect, and several engineers, have drawn the plans as well as the elevations and sections, with an exactitude, which cannot fail to give a complete and satisfactory idea of them. The basso-relievos and paintings in fresco, which adorn them, have been accurately copied by the young people in the Commission of Arts; the topography of the ancient cities has been executed by the engineers and geographers, while I am occupied with Citizens Fourrier and Cortaz in forming written descriptions, which are to accompany the plans and drawings.'

What a magnificent view of the Antiquities of Egypt must be exhibited by this work, now preparing under the auspices of the Chief Consul! The present Report, which is called an abridged description, is offered to the public rather to excite, than completely to gratify curiosity: but it does more than answer this first object. It informs us that five immense palaces and thirty-five temples still remain; and that twenty of their temples are still seen in a state of as complete preservation as the most modern of our structures. It remarks that there is a generation of monuments, the age of each of which is *triple* that of the most antient states of Europe;—that Egypt was the cradle of architecture;—that the Greeks were copyists, and that the plans of their most elegant temples are taken from the small peripteral temples of the Egyptians;—that 'the taste of Egypt differed from that of Greece and from our own, in bringing together those masses which we have been particularly careful to detach and insulate; thus at Luxor, in a space of thirty feet, two obelisks are seen of ninety-two feet in height, behind them are two colossal statues of thirty-five feet, and somewhat farther are two moles, whose elevation is fifty-five feet;'—that, though unobserved by preceding travellers, there is a resemblance in the Egyptian columns to the different productions of nature;—that, in two of their temples, the zodiacs which decorate the ceilings represent the state of these heavens at the distance of four thousand eight hundred years;—and that these, together with the astronomical subjects engraven under the porticoes and in the vestibules of their temples, seem to indicate that 'the priests thought that a regard for the sciences was the best preparative for the duties of religion *.'

M. Ripaud thus speaks of the paintings and basso-relievos which decorate the temples of Egypt:

> 'If the first aspect of a temple creates an animating surprise in the mind, the paintings, which adorn every part of the surface, prolong and extend it. They all relate to the worship of the gods of Egypt; they represent offerings and sacrifices, as well as subjects connected with astronomy and agriculture. In these representations we recollected many of those divinities, of whose existence we had entertained no more than a distant suspicion, and many others concerning whom history has been altogether silent.
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> 'The drawing of the basso-relievos is incorrect, as the lesser members of their architecture are defective. The observation which the Abbé Winckleman made on the first, may be applied to both: "The Egyptians have sacrificed to all the divinities, except the Graces."
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> 'The ornaments are of a fantastic invention, which can have no relation to any thing but the rites of religion, and are very heavy in their execution: they afford no repose to the eye. The drawing of the human figure is sometimes disgusting, while that of animals frequently approaches to perfection.
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> 'Each picture is generally composed of three persons: the divinity to whom the offering is made; the priest who presents it; and a divinity of an inferior order behind the former. Their attitudes are, in general, stiff and constrained; and the artists of this country being ignorant of perspective, were not capable of giving effect to groups of figures. But, with all these defects, the basso-relievos afford pleasure in the view of them, from the interesting subjects which they trace. Besides, though, as an whole, their pictures may be incorrect, the parts which compose them are sometimes executed with the utmost care and precision.'

The Report begins with an account of Philœ, an island near Syene, formerly the boundary of the Roman empire, where the Romans kept a garrison; and it finishes with the Pyramids of Gizé and Heliopolis.

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* Do not other representations in the Egyptian temples militate against this sublime view of the religion of antient Egypt?

We extract the account of the palace of Karnac:

'This palace may be considered as the habitation of kings; the principal mole is turned towards the Nile, and has an hundred and forty paces in length, by twenty-five of solid breadth. It leads to a court of an hundred and ten paces long, and whose breadth is equal to it. Two rows of six lotus columns, placed in a line with the mole, lead to a portico composed of one hundred and thirty columns, in rows of sixteen deep. In the two middle rows there are six lotus columns; and on each side are seven rows of those of the truncated lotus, which are less elevated than the former; the diameter of the former is eleven, and that of the latter seven, feet.

'The length of this vestibule is seventy-eight paces, and its breadth is the same as that of the mole. It was covered throughout, and received light from windows which had been opened above the lotus columns. The foundations having given way in some parts, several of the columns were prostrate. The fall of the mole which looks to the court, would have drawn after it the whole building, if it had not been constructed with immovable solidity. To this vestibule succeeded a court, where there had been four obelisks, of which only one remains: from this court we passed into another, decorated with two obelisks and twelve colossal figures, in the form of termini, holding the handle of a pot on the breast.

'Two other courts lead to the apartment of the king. In a line with the gates are two saloons of granite, which appear to have been the apartments of state. It is probable, that at the period when Thebes was built, granite was not so much used as it has since been by the Egyptian kings of Memphis, and the Greek sovereigns of Alexandria. To the right and left of these saloons are the apartments of the court. Those of the king and the queen might be distinguished in two chambers, whose gates are of black granite. They did not appear to be more than twelve feet square. The paintings in the corridors which surround the halls of audience, describe the power and wealth of sovereigns. On the walls are sculptured caskets, screens, pearl necklaces, perfume-pots, strong-boxes, and hoods enriched with precious stones. There are also pictures which represent different ceremonies of initiation; while others display the progress of love.

'At an hundred paces to the east of the palace is a long colonnade that serves as a portico to the buildings which appear to have been occupied by the king's household: they contain a great number of separate apartments; their form is oblong, and their dimensions are above twenty-five feet in length, by fifteen in breadth. They are all decorated with pictures. A gate in a very fine style of architecture, on the eastern side of the palace, and about four hundred paces from the range of buildings which terminates it, led to this part of the royal habitation.

'To the south of the court of obelisks were four moles, which being in a line with each other, formed on this side the avenue to the great palace. This appears to have been the entrance of the kings of Egypt. The people were admitted no further than the vestibule, supported by the forest of columns, which has been already mentioned.

tioned. The particular audiences were probably given in the halls of granite. The gate of the most southern mole was constructed of granite, or rather perhaps repaired by it, and was approached by an avenue of ninety lions, many of which are in good preservation. Their stature is colossal, and their length about fifteen feet: the interval between them is but ten feet; and they are represented as lying down on a base about three feet high.

'An avenue of sphinxes intersects it at right angles from east to west, and unites with an avenue of rams in the same direction. Opposite the gate of the little palace of Karnac, the latter avenue stretches on to about an hundred fathom from that of Luxor, of which it appears to have been a part.

'In front of each of the moles which lead to the court of obelisks in the great palace, are two and sometimes four colossal figures in stone or in granite. They are either seated in the position of those of Luxor, or standing upright in the action of walking, the arms resting on their sides, and furnished with an inflected poniard.

'The sides of these vast buildings have suffered various accidents, and the interior construction is very defective Whatever precautions the Egyptians took, in general, to ensure the duration of their monuments, they trusted so much to the quality of the air, which is free from every destructive principle, that they adorned the exterior parts of them with as much care and elegance as they employed for the decoration of the interior masonry.

'To the south, and at two hundred paces from the flank of these moles, is a superb gate, which leads to a small palace, placed on a line with the court of the great palace. This gate, perhaps, is the only piece of Egyptian architecture which would be taken as a model in our day. It is now detached from two moles which flanked it, as they are levelled with the ground. The Egyptian gates in this state are infinitely more beautiful than when they form a part of these buildings, whose high elevation, by contracting the space they ought to occupy, and overwhelming them, as it were, by disproportions, destroys their effect. The cornice which terminates them, resembles, in its inflexion, the waving branch of the palm-tree: the distinct parts are executed with infinite care. It is covered with pictures both within and without, and it leads to the small palace which has been already mentioned. It consists of fifteen apartments, lighted sparingly by windows, which are never seen in the temples. A double range of rams leads to the south gate, of the same proportion as the lions situated before the gate of granite.'

To protract the entertainment of our readers, though our limits scarcely justify the length to which the article will be extended, we shall now add the description of the sepulchres of Thebes:

'The whole of the mountain Libycus, which begins at half a league to the west of the Memnonium, and ends immediately opposite to Medinet-abou, is pierced from its base to three fourths of its elevation with a great number of sepulchral grottos. Those which are nearest the surface of the ground are the most spacious, as well

Annexed to this report is a letter from M. Derozier the younger, engineer-mineralogist, to his father; which contains farther remarks on Egyptian antiquities, and which concludes with observing that 'the horned serpents, which were among the objects of antient Egyptian adoration, are still very common in that country, by one of which he narrowly escaped being bitten in a grotto at Thebes.'—Prefixed, is a map of Egypt by D'Anville, from the cataracts of the Nile to the Mediterranean. This is a very acceptable addition: but the names of places in it ought to have been made to correspond with those which are given in the report.—Some gallicisms occur in the translation; as, the pillar '*has* so many feet long,' &c. &c.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1800.

ARCHITECTURE.

Art. 13. *A Collection of Plans and Elevations of modern Buildings,* public and private, erected in Great Britain by the most celebrated Architects; engraved in Aqua-tinta, from original Drawings, by George Richardson, Architect. To be completed in 10 Numbers. Imperial Folio. 10s. 6d. each; of which 7 Numbers are published. Taylor, Holborn.

The *Vitruvius Britannicus* has long been highly valued as affording a collection of the principal buildings in this country: but many years have elapsed since it was formed, and many noble mansions have since arisen. We therefore congratulate the public on the appearance of the present performance; which is intended as a supplement to that production, and which lays before them plans and elevations of the principal modern buildings in this country.

As the peculiar merits of this work cannot well be investigated without a reference to the plates, which our plan does not admit, we must rest contented with announcing so important an undertaking; not doubting that those who are interested, either professionally or from amusement, will be anxious to possess a publication in which will be found the studies of the most celebrated artists of the present day. It is intended to proceed in the regular succession of one number in every six months. When the collection is complete, we may probably take more particular notice of it.

Art. 14. *Hints for Dwellings:* consisting of original Designs for Cottages, Farm-houses, Villas, &c. plain and ornamental. With Plans to each: in which strict Attention is paid to unite Convenience and Elegance with Economy. Including some Designs for Town Houses, elegantly engraved in Aqua-tinta, with appropriate Scenery. By D. Laing, Architect and Surveyor. 4to. 34 Plates. 1l. 5s. Boards. Taylor, Holborn. 1800.

A set of useful designs, which, although they do not vie with those in the preceding article for magnitude and richness, yet still attract attention from their more general application to the wants of the greater mass of the public. The author observes,

'Of the plans, I hope the distribution will be found to possess convenience, elegance, and economy. This branch of the architect's profession is the most arduous; and to this point should all the powers of his mind be directed, united to all the intelligence which can be furnished by the employer; for within the house, those comforts and conveniencies will be sought, which shall compensate for all expence and trouble. In the plan, I may be allowed to say, will be shewn the skill, taste, and ingenuity of the artist; here, his address in surmounting difficulties will evince itself; and here the conveniences to be combined and arranged must render the mansion inviting to the master, and convenient to the family: by a good distribution also much space is saved, or applied to useful purposes, and the expences much abridged; and I must repeat that too much care cannot be given to well arranging the plan, suitable to the family, circumstances, and desires of the proprietor: for a proper attention to these circumstances in the outset will prevent much future uneasiness, or alterations which never fail to create expence.'

While a diversity of taste and wants prevails, these publications of studies, uniting talents and attention, afford a variety suited to different inclinations; and we can recommend the present work as one of the best of that kind, to the attention of those who wish to amuse themselves with brick and mortar.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *The Friend of Mothers:* designed to assist them in their Attempts to instil the Rudiments of Language and Arithmetic, at an early Age, and in a Manner agreeable to their Children. 12mo. 1s. Newbery. 1799.

'This little volume is designed as a prelude to a set of toys for the purpose of *teaching* in *sport:* it is intended at once to explain the manner of using those toys, and to hint to young mothers how they may amuse and instruct their little ones on the same plan, even without such an apparatus. The writer hopes soon to provide a box for the purpose of teaching the rudiments of language in a sportive manner, on a plan the most simple and the least expensive possible: this will be called a *Spelling Box*. The difficulty of getting very diminutive cuts neatly executed has hitherto retarded the appearance of this *beginning* of her scheme: she announces with pleasure, that the *continuation* is in the hands of an engraver: it is to be on the same plan as the *Infant's Delight*, supplying easy and pleasant reading for infants, *as an indulgence*. The whole of the projected method will in time be at the service of such ladies as may choose to adopt the plan. She flatters herself with the hope of affording entertainment and instruction to the various branches of the family, according to their respective age and progress. The infants will find easy reading lessons; those a little older, a dictionary; and children more advanced, an explanation suited to them.'

Such is the account given in a short preface to this performance. From letters, grammar, and arithmetic, with their appropriate engravings, if we rightly understand the lady, we shall proceed to natural history, with its suitable plates: but, as the design is not yet completely executed, we can give only an imperfect view of the plan. We observe many good remarks and directions in the present volume; and though it is chiefly intended to assist instruction *with the apparatus* proposed, we find one chapter designed to render these early lessons not only amusing but improving without this aid.

Art. 16. *Dodici Conversazioni*, &c.; *i. e.* Twelve Conversations, in Italian and French. In which are introduced the most necessary Words and Phrases used in familiar Conversation. By G. Grimani, Language-master. 12mo. pp. 383. 5s. Low, London. 1799.

This appears to be a very useful publication, as the titles of the several conversations will evince; which are as follow:

I. Conversation; between a young Lady and her Woman, on first rising; with her Milliner, and Mantua-maker.

II. Between a Mother, a Son, and a Daughter, at Breakfast.

III. Between a young Lady and her Italian Master.

IV. Between a young Lady and her Music-Master, on the Piano Forte, Singing, and Accompaniment.

V. Between a young Lady and her Dancing-master.

VI. Between a young Lady, her Mother, and Brother, while walking out, making Purchases, and in the Garden.

VII. Between the same Persons, concerning the Sciences, particularly Geography.

VIII. At a Toilette, between a young Lady and her Woman.

IX. General Conversation at Dinner.

X. In a Gallery of Pictures, Drawings, and Engravings: on Mythology: among many young Persons.

XI. At the Playhouse, and Opera.

XII. On different Games at Cards, &c.

As boys at grammar-schools in England learn Greek through the medium of Latin, it seems necessary for students in Italian to learn it in a French Grammar, and to attain the colloquial language of Italy through that of France. There is a greater affinity between two languages so equally derived from Latin, and of which the rules of grammar are the same, than between Italian and any language of Celtic or Teutonic origin.

It is but just to say that these conversations are written so equally well in both languages, that it would not be easy, without the author's Italian name, to determine which was his native idiom.

In speaking of arts and sciences, he seems perfectly well acquainted with their technica. In the IVth Conversation with the Music-master, as much elementary knowlege is displayed in the art, as could be obtained in two or three months from the instructions of a professed teacher; and the technical terms in Italian and French, with the names and import of the several characters in the Gammut, Time-table, and Accompaniment or Thorough-base, will be of great use in receiving lessons of foreign masters: as such terms of art rarely occur in common reading. The Conversation with the Dancing-master will have its use in French; in which language, young ladies are more likely to receive instructions than in Italian.

The old dialogues of *Veneroni* are now antiquated: but in these, the fashions and manners of the present times are the subjects of conversation. The Dialogue in the Garden furnishes the names of plants, flowers, and fruits; which are likewise seldom found in common reading.

In the first list of Sciences, Theology is omitted, p. 146: but at p. 148, it is enumerated as one of the principal exercises of human intellect. We have in this dialogue definitions of grammatical terms; and indeed the principal technica of all the arts and sciences.

From the Conversation in a Gallery of Painting, Statuary, and Sculpture, a mythological Dictionary may be formed. In the dialogue at the Opera, questions and replies concerning the performance are furnished. In the last Conversation, on different games at Cards, the author seems to have rivalled Hoyle in definitions, and has certainly surpassed him in moral reflections on the evils which gaming engenders in society.

A table of errata is wanting to this volume, in which we observed several typographical errors. The punctuation, also, is deficient throughout. At p. 354, the author, speaking of the amusements of the ante-revolution—Venice, (where there is little convenience for walking, and none for riding,) says that, ' in general, the inhabitants have no other amusement than *cards*.' There may have been much play in private: but in public *and* private, music seems to have been more cultivated and patronized there, than in any other city of Europe. There formerly were four *Conservatorios*, or schools for the education of female orphans and natural children; in which music, particularly vocal, was cultivated with greater care, and taught by greater masters, than in any other city of Italy. *

We have dwelt the longer on this little work, because of its singular merit and possible utility. It is arranged in a more alluring form than is given to the dry rules of grammars, and the unconnected vocabularies usually annexed to them; and we may venture to say of this book, what has been remarked of Johnson's Dictionary, that, from the happy illustrations and examples which the author has given of the terms which he defines, " in looking for words, we find things."

Art. 17. *Scelta di Lettere familiari, degli Autori pieù Celebri,* &c. A Collection of familiar Letters, by the most celebrated Authors; for the Use of Students in the Italian Language: with Accents, to mark the Pronunciation of all the doubtful Words. By Leonardo Nardini. 12mo. pp. 264. 3s. Dulau and Co. 1800.

The English public have given considerable encouragement to this method of book-making; and, to say the truth, when selections are conducted with judgment and taste, they cannot fail of being acceptable. They bring together, within a narrow compass, interesting pieces which are generally scattered through many volumes, and afford considerable entertainment at a very moderate price;—no trifling recommendation in these hard times. To the compiler of this little volume of Italian Letters, the praise of judicious discrimination is due; and his collection will be thankfully received by the Italian student who wishes to improve, and to write this elegant language with facility and correctness. Algarotti—Bembo—Bentivoglio—Boccalini—Castiglione—Caro—Fabri—Galileo—Ganganelli—Guarini—Lambertini—Machiavelli—Mascardi—Metastasio—Redi—Tasso—Tolomei—Zanotti, and others, are here laid under contribution; and, when drawing from such rich and various sources, it is no great compliment to the editor to say that this volume is both amusing and instructive. A letter from Ganganelli to a friend, on the subject of travelling in Italy, peculiarly merits those epithets on account of its style, its method of detail, and its reflections.

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* See Wright's Travels, and Burney's Musical Tour through France and Italy.

The accentuation of doubtful words will prove of great use to those who study the Italian language without a preceptor.

MILITARY *and* NAVAL.

Art. 18. *A Collection of Papers on Naval Architecture*; originally communicated through the Channel of the Wrapper of the European Magazine; in which publication, the further Communications on this Subject will be continued. Vol. II. In Three Parts. 8vo. 11s. Boards. Sewell. 1800.

We have already noticed the first volume, and the first part of the second volume of these papers [*]. Those contained in the remainder of the volume now published treat of various subjects of marine economy, but principally of improvements in Naval Architecture. As they are not original publications, and as some of them passed in review before us on their first appearance, we shall not enter into an examination of particulars: but we must observe that this collection, of useful though miscellaneous maritime information, promises to be one of the most complete of any hitherto published.

Art. 19. *An Epitome of Military Events.* Translated from the French periodical Work published at Hamburgh. No. X., Illustrated by a Map of Part of the Chain of the Alps and Appenines on the Southern Frontier of Piedmont, and a Plan of the Town and Environs of Coni. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

The same science, information, impartiality, and regard to the interests of humanity, which so honorably distinguished the preceding numbers of this valuable publication, are not less conspicuous in the present. We have here detailed the interesting particulars of the situations of the respective contending armies, at the conclusion of the last year.—We understand that this work, which is so far superior to all former narratives of the day, comes from the pen of General Dumas; who, if we mistake not, was involved in the proscription of the 18th Fructidor. If the Frenchman now and then appears, we are bound in justice to observe that it is less in the statements of facts, than in the reflections with which these are accompanied; reflections which, however, making due allowances, are equally creditable to the head and heart of the writer. The scenes of carnage which he so well paints; and the skill and activity employed to destroy life, never before equalled, which he so ably describes; are in his hands powerful arguments to induce contending parties to repress their mischievous ambition, to lay aside their implacable resentments, and to bend their minds to conciliation.

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[*] See vol. xix. N. S. p. 76.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 20. *The Enchanted Plants.* Fables in Verse. 8vo. pp. 93. 5s. Boards. Evans, Pall Mall. 1800.

After the highly finished works which have of late years been given to the world by Dr. Langhorne and Dr. Darwin, on subjects similar to the present, it must not be regarded as matter of surprize if we took up this book with more than our usual fastidiousness. Poetry indeed, and perhaps especially that branch of it which relates to the vegetable kingdom, presents a wide field for fancy, as well as ample scope for the luxuriance of a glowing imagination: but we must repeat, and we repeat it with regret, that we have been so long accustomed to dwell with rapture on the beauties of the two exquisite masters whom we have just mentioned, that we are not altogether able to form a judgment totally unbiassed on this subject.

The present composition, though published anonymously, is generally understood to proceed from the pen of a lady (Mrs. Montolieu) of whose taste and poetical powers the public have already formed a favourable judgment; and we may venture to say that this opinion will not be changed by a perusal of the volume now before us. It is ornamented with an elegant frontispiece engraved by Bartolozzi, and is printed in the same style in which every thing proceeds from the hands of Bensley: but, in stating these circumstances, we mention the most subordinate qualities, and shall proceed immediately to a consideration of the work itself.

The introduction to the fables is very pleasing; and the idea which it contains, of making the Genius of flowers appear, and endow a mortal with the power of hearing them converse, if not entirely new, must at least be allowed to be extremely striking.—The fables, 22 in number, are each appropriated to some passion or affection of the mind; which they for the most part aptly illustrate, considered both as to the execution and the flowers that are chosen. The versification is throughout the whole elegant and harmonious: but the fables are too long to allow us to extract any one for the perusal of our readers. We imagine, however, that they will consider themselves obliged to us for laying before them a few lines taken from the beginning of the last:

'Once on a rock reclined I lay
  That o'er the ocean frowned,
Tempests obscured the face of day,
  And lightnings glared around,

'Sad sighed the spirit of the storm,
Congenial with my soul;
Like passing hours of various form
I marked the billows roll:

'Some heaved like woes with mighty swell,
And broke with hideous roar,
Some lightly foaming, curled and fell
Like pleasures quickly o'er.

'Between loud peals, by vivid light,
Or when the horizon cleared,
Th' unbounded waters to my sight
Eternity appeared.'

The nature of our language does not appear to us to admit of the word '*real*' being contracted to a monosyllable, as in the 16th Fable, page 64,

'Who *real* insignificance feel,'

especially in our anapæstic lines, with which English poets are apt to take inadmissible liberties. They should never forget that to "slide glibly off the tongue" is the chief merit of this measure; which, though perhaps one of the most easy to write, is of all the most difficult to write well.—We must also remark that the point or moral of these fables is not always so neatly and tersely expressed as we could wish. There is in this respect a happy elegance in the works of the unfortunate Pignotti, which we freely confess we never yet found equalled; and we would recommend to the author of the Enchanted Plants an attentive perusal of them, and especially the two fables of "*La rosa e lo spino*" and "*Narciso al fonti.*"

Art. 21. *Epistle in Rhyme to M. G. Lewis, Esq.* M. P. Author of the Monk, &c. With other Verses, including Stanzas addressed to Mrs. Jordan. By —— Soame, Esq. late of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 24. 6d. Lunn.

The epistle, which occupies the greater part of this small pamphlet, is written much in the style of Mr. Lewis's own poetry. It is sometimes lively, and contains a few good lines, but is on the whole languid and incorrect. The same terror also of the Devil, with his horns and tail, prevails in it; and the author is a sturdy defender both of the indecency and the ghosts of Mr. Lewis's productions. We shall extract the apology for apparitions, as a favourable specimen of the poetry:

'Say, oft as Night and Silence o'er the earth
Draw their close veil, and give reflection birth,
Is not a spirit, good or ill confest,
In ev'ry virtuous, ev'ry guilty breast?
Does not a voice, that will be heard, pervade
The inmost soul in deep retirement's shade?
Does it not calm of innocence the fear?
Does it not yell to prosp'rous vice, "Despair!"
Why then forbid the poet's art to give
Corporeal shape to what all feel who live?

No mind so firm but oft recurs in thought,
'To *all the priest and all the nurse have taught*;
Mem'ry acknowleges the forms of air,
And ev'ry goblin finds acquaintance there.
Not so the monstrous brood that shock belief,
Palm'd on the town by Morton and O'Keeffe;
Who, still with nature and good sense at strife,
Profanely stile their figures drawn from life:
Ev'n Boaden's ghost is surely full as good,
As Holcroft's characters of flesh and blood,
To which, throughout the year, no day goes by,
But gives in ev'ry lineament the lie.
Soon shall some wag, to set opinions right,
Describe the nymphs of Billingsgate—polite,
Soft sentiment from lips of butchers roll,
Or with a tender turnkey melt the soul!
Since valiant taylors on the stage let loose,
Rouse all the lion rampant—in the goose!
And gen'rous Jews unsparingly dispense
Pure christianity and vital pence!'

)f the other short poems, the less that is said the better.

t. 22. *Poems on various Occasions*; with Translations from Au-
hors in different Languages. By the Rev. W. Collier, Senior
'ellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Two Vols. 8vo. 12s.
ewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

'he author of these poems, which are published by subscription,
rms us in his preface that they 'were written in times of affluence
happiness, but are published in those of a far different condition: of
originals, there are very few which were not composed on real and
icular occasions; and, had not difficulties in life appeared, these
ts of a private and unfeigning muse would, most likely, never have
exposed to public view: the author, therefore, more than indif-
nt as to the applause or censure of those who know him only by
e printed poems, is without anxiety as to the judgment which
may deserve; and has little wish as to their dispersion, but as far
he profits may tend to alleviate the burthens which were the causes
heir having been committed to the press.'

Jnder these circumstances, the reader will excuse us from enter-
into a strict examination of the contents of the volumes. We
l merely extract one or two poems, as specimens.

'SERENATA.—TO ROSALBA.

'Cease for a while thy strain,
Sweet Bird of Eve! To Sorrow's languid ear
Thy warblings may be dear,
While they of wrongs and cruel deeds complain:
But in Rosalba's breast,
By Love, by Truth possest,
Sleep now would fix his reign, and reigning there be blest.

'All nature sinks around
In stillest calm; upon the mountain-trees
Expires the nightly breeze,
Nor streams to Echo give the faintest sound;
Amid the blue serene
The silent Moon is seen,
And stars, with noiseless train, accompany their Queen.

'Now, Sleep! exert thy pow'r,
And as thy phantoms in bright order rise,
On wings of various dyes,
Thy choicest charms on my Rosalba show'r!
Do thou her eye-lids close,
While kindled in repose,
Fancy, Love's secret friend, within her bosom glows.

'Sweet Bird of Eve! O keep
Respectful silence; and thou, nightly breeze,
Wave not the mountain trees;
Nor, Echo! thou disturb the reign of Sleep:
And you, ye Stars, that move
In noiseless train above,
O shed your kindest beams, and guard my sleeping love!'

'LEVITIES.—The THREE PHIALS.

'A Bon-vivant, some say t'was Quin,
It matters not a single pin,
For all the who, the where, and when,
I leave to those grave learned men,
Who cannot laugh, and will not cry,
Unless they know the reason why;
Mine is, by far, a better plan,
Cry when I must, laugh when I can.
'This Bon-vivant one morning found
His sleep had not been quite so sound,
His head was muzzy, pulse was full,
His stomach queer, his spirits dull:
Jerry, says he, to Bolus go,
And tell him, I am but so-so;
Bid him send something spicy, warm,
Such as he knows will do no harm;
I'll stay at home, and try at night
What rest will do to set me right.
Away went Jerry: hardly gone,
When some companions of the ton,
Just made a call, propos'd a scheme,
Which put to flight the drowsy dream
Of home and rest; with them he went,
And past the time in full content.
Jerry came back, three phials brought,
With sov'reign pow'rs of healing fraught;
But where's his master? gone astray,
To try for health a better way.——

The day was past, the night was come,
Or rather morning peep'd, when home
The master came, his spirits light,
His pulse was cheery, eye was bright,—
When on the table, in a row,
He saw the phials,—goodly show,—
Each with a label trimly deck'd,
The time and purpose to direct.
He read the first—*This please to take*
Immediately—the cheerful rake
Obey'd the order,—down it goes,—
And then he read the second dose;
What's here?—*Take this at going to rest.*—
Why, aye, says he, it is confest,
I'm going to bed—without a frown,
He fairly chucks the second down:
When lo! the third in sight appear'd;
What, am I never to be clear'd
Of all this stuff? in angry phrase
He spoke,—but, let's see what it says,—
This, Sir, you will be pleas'd to take
To-morrow morning;—please to shake
The phial well: this droll advice
Calm'd all his anger in a trice;
His watch declar'd, beyond denial,
'Twas four o'clock; he shook the phial,
And with the first and second, he
Pops down the third for company.
This tale, a lucky proof supplies,
How to be merry, and be wise;
And how we may, on same condition,
Please both ourselves, and our physician.'

these compositions prove agreeable to the reader's taste, he
romise himself much amusement from the present collection.
: second volume consists chiefly of translations from Latin,
h, and Italian poets. Some of the notes evince considerable
ion, particularly that on the Engubine tablet.
are glad to observe that Mr. Collier has obtained a numerous
ost respectable list of subscribers.

23. *The Birth-Day*: A Comedy, in Three Acts. As per-
ned at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. Altered from the
man of Kotzebue, and adapted to the English Stage. By
omas Dibdin, Author of the Jew and the Doctor, &c. 8vo.
Longman and Rees. 1800.

is is a play altered from Kotzebue's *Reconciliation*, of which we
already given an account. Mr. Dibdin has judiciously omitted
sentimental passages, and has softened much of the absurdity
original. He has even occasionally introduced a little humour,
d of the Teutonic insipidity which palled us in the unaltered
and he has contrived, by several ingenious turns, to give some

degree of zest to those personages who produced the longest yawns from us in our review of the former. For all this indulgence, we feel ourselves obliged to Mr. Dibdin; and we should be still farther indebted to him, if he would give us some production more his own, which would not revive (as this does) the spectre of past disgust, even in those instances in which we approve his alterations.

When we compare this performance with the drudging translations of Kotzebue which have so often excited our contempt, we cannot help repeating our surprize that persons so little acquainted with the feelings of the English public should presume to inundate it with the Vandalisms of authorship; of poetry we say nothing. In the dress which these translations wear, they tempt us to imitate the lines of Pope:

> " Past wit and present, living sense and dead,
> All, all be lost, and *Kotz'bue* may be read!"

Art. 24. *Adelaide:* A Tragedy in Five Acts, as performed with Universal Applause, at the Theatre-Royal Drury Lane. By Henry James Pye, Poet Laureat. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1800.

Had not the title-page informed us that this tragedy was received on its representation *with universal applause*, we should not have conjectured this circumstance from a perusal of it. Surely the public theatrical taste must have experienced a remarkable change, if it was delighted with a drama like that now before us: which in a great degree consists of long dialogues, during which the stage must have resembled a theatre for declamation rather than for action. Pit, boxes, and gallery, have required something more to amuse them; and play-wrights have not ventured to court applause merely by the production of a dramatic poem, but have studied to keep the stage alive, and to make the dialogue subservient to the progress of the action;—not to create incidents merely as *pegs* on which to hang a long string of speeches and rejoinders. How has it happened, then, that Mr. Pye has succeeded? The performers must have gone through their protracted *lengths* to admiration, if they won from the audience their 'universal applause;' for the second act contains a single dialogue between Prince Richard and Adelaide, which, without the smallest relief or interruption, extends through almost nine pages; and in the fourth act we find another, between the same characters, which occupies above six pages more.

In our opinion, the structure and conduct of this drama do not intitle it to distinguished notice. For the most part, it may be said to be taken from Tragedy's Common-Place Book. Richard and Adelaide, the hero and heroine, sigh and rave, accuse and pardon each other with all the rapid change of feeling which is usual with dramatic lovers; and though the language is good, and the sentiments are unexceptionable, we must own that, considered as the production of Mr. Pye, who holds no mean station among the poets of the age, we have here been altogether much disappointed.

One circumstance, however, we must applaud. The Laureat has not thought it necessary to introduce either the *dagger* or the *bowl*, to constitute his poem *A Tragedy*. King Henry indeed dies, but

not

on the stage; nor is his death occasioned by violence, but by ef co-operating with disease and old age. Now in thus banishing rder and assassination from our theatrical spectacles, he has given example which merits imitation. Let us not be so barbarous as to k amusement from sanguinary scenes, nor henceforth regard *blood* essential to the essence of tragedy. Ought not all serious and soul-ving dramas, which strongly excite our *Pity* and *Terror*, to be isidered as tragedies, though Death itself stalks not over the ge?

t. 25. *The Tournament*, a Tragedy; imitated from the celebrated German Drama, entitled Agnes Bernauer, which was written by a Nobleman of high Rank, and founded on a fact that occurred in Bavaria about the year 1435. By Mariana Starke. 8vo. 2s. R. Phillips. 1800.

Tragedies founded on facts may transform facts into downright probabilities; of which an instance is now before us. The *Agnes* the Tournament could never be the Agnes of Nature. For the e of the moral given in the last line, 'that innocence is the peccare of heaven,' her life is preserved against the truth of history: the poet had better have plunged her into the Danube, than have itinued her existence to utter the following tame lamentation over body of her father, murdered in her defence:

> 'Behold how still, how spiritless he lies!—
> Day after day, and year succeeding year,
> Yon sun shall kiss the earth which covers him,
> And he unconscious sleep!'

The observation is indeed very just: but it is more adapted to the uth of an Epictetus than of an Agnes.

While perusing this drama, we marked several passages for animadversion: but, where criticism can be so easily exercised, it is st manly and generous to forbear; we will therefore borrow a rase from this lady, and

> ——in mercy *crop*
> Our thread of stricture short.

We regret that we cannot express so favourable an opinion of liss Starke's dramatic talents, as of her epistolary qualifications: see ir account of her *Letters from Italy*, Rev. vol. xxxii. p. 225, and 387.

rt. 26. *The Egyptian Festival*; an Opera, in Three Acts: as performed at Drury-Lane. Written by Andrew Franklin. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1800.

A long and rather peevish preface to this drama inclined us to expect less merit in it than we found. The causes of the author's omplaints are no others than those which all former writers for usic have had to encounter. Metastasio had the same hardships to ombat; yet they are not detailed in any of his prefaces. The musical composer in the present instance is not named: but there eems to have been some heart-burning between the poet and the musician; who on these occasions are often mutually jealous of each other. Instead of the *union* of poetry and music, they are generally t war in our theatres, when they should aid and assist each other.

The violation of the unities must be excused in an opera, particularly a comic opera: The fable of this piece is divided into so many plots, that it would be difficult to say which was the principal. In musical dramas, however, there is no time for discussion, reasoning; or even for sentiment, except in the songs; the scenes must be short, and the changes frequent; and in this drama no one can complain of the want of *stage business*, and *coups de théatre*. There is indeed such a perpetual variety of character and incident, that the audience has no leisure for reflection on the unities or established laws of the drama by Aristotle and Horace: yet, though the incidents are rapid and wild, there is so much amusement of various kinds in this opera, that all but fastidious critics must have been interested and entertained.

To enumerate the several means employed to produce the amusement, we might instance the three or four plots, for three or four pairs of lovers; the tyranny, treachery, and brutality of Mustapha; the humanity and generosity of the English Governor; the distress and danger of the dethroned Ali; the duty and affection of his son; by whose courage and activity his life was saved, and his kingdom restored; then the embellishments of music, and vocal powers of Madame Mara and Mrs. Bland; the spirited action and pleasing manner of singing of Miss de Camp; the humourous dialogue and excellent acting of young Banister and Suett; together with the scenes, decorations, and dancing; all of which must have combined to please that part of the audience which was at all so disposed.

Art. 27. *Ignez de Castro;* a Portuguese Tragedy, in Three Acts. Written by Don Domingo Quita. Translated by Benjamin Thomson, Esq. 12mo. 1s. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

The affecting story of Inez de Castro has taken classical rank in this country, from Mickle's delightful versification: but we shall not advise any reader of the translation of Camoens to resort, for farther pleasure, to the drama before us. After every allowance is made for the disguise of a meagre prose-version, we can extract no matter for commendation from the Portuguese tragedian.

Art. 28. *Petrarchal Sonnets, and Miscellaneous Poems.* By William Dimond, the younger. Crown 8vo. pp. 165. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

The author of these verses informs us that they were produced at the early age of sixteen, and that their composition served to relieve him from more severe studies. To write poetry at the age of sixteen is natural enough, but to publish it is not very prudent. The antients, before they drank wine at table, poured out a cup on the floor, as a libation to the gods. In like manner, it should be a religious duty with young writers to offer their first fruits to Vulcan.

The gentle bard before us seems to have met with more of the indulgence of patronage, than of the wholesome discipline of criticism; and we should be sorry to damp the agreeable feelings with which his list of subscribers must have inspired him. A farther perseverance in his studies will convince him of the necessity of writing a more correct, and a more *English* style; and will cure him of the habit of inventing words, which is so very conspicuous in his dedication and preface. Such words as *to affectionate,* (as a verb active,) *ensoul'd, memorise, tireless, parturitions of genius,* which occur to the eye in the course of a few pages, are certainly inadmissible in good writing. In the 10th sonnet, also, we observed '*hearted pulse*;' and various phrases, equally unauthorized, are scattered through the volume.

We give the following as a specimen of the sonnets:

'*To a* MYRTLE.

'Lo! blooming Myrtle, on thy polish'd rind
I grave the cypher of the fair I prize;
And know the mark a secret worth implies
Of mystic import to its form assign'd,
Of strong persuasion o'er the rugged mind,
And bright bewitchment on licentious eyes,
That awes them into virtue by surprize:
Oh, Myrtle! as approv'd these truths thou find,
Whene'er thy procreant charms present a shoot,
(In native robe of deathless verdure drest)
Still be the cypher on that shoot imprest!
So born and nurtur'd of thy parent root
In green expanse shall wave a *letter'd grove,*
Teaching the word of UNIVERSAL LOVE!'

We shall forbear to examine particularly the remaining contents of this publication. In the course of a very few years, the author will probably think, as we do at present, that he has been somewhat premature in appearing at the bar of the public.

Art. 29. *A Poetic Survey round Birmingham*; with a brief Description of the different Curiosities and Manufactories of the Place. Intended as a Guide to Strangers. By J. Bisset. Accompanied by a magnificent Directory, with the Names, Professions, &c. superbly engraved on emblematic Plates. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Printed for the Author at Birmingham.

Notwithstanding the relationship subsisting between the *Belles Lettres,* and the *Beaux Arts,* we are not to imagine that the region of elegant manufactures is the region of poetry; nor that the Muses take lodgings at "Vulcan's smithy." Mr. Bisset makes mention of an excursion of the Gods to Birmingham, but he does not tell us that these Ladies accompanied them; and if they did, we have no evidence of their being singularly partial to him. This *Survey* has indeed the merit of easy, familiar, and minutely descriptive versification, but the epithet *poetic* does not in general belong to it. The writer has endeavoured to exhibit, as from the top of St. Philip's Church, *A Panorama* of Birmingham in verse; or to string together, in artless rhimes, the names of the different seats, manufactories, &c. in and round that town: followed by 'A Ramble of the Gods through Birmingham,' who are made to wonder at smelting-mills and steam engines, and at the dexterity of pin and button makers, &c.

To the stranger who visits this astonishing place, Mr. Bisset's survey will be not only amusing but useful; and the elegant decorations which accompany it considerably add to its value: yet we are of opinion that his verse would have better suited these embellishments, and that it would in itself have been more gratifying, had he been more solicitous of the critic's approbation; instead of treating it with contempt, when he sets out with proclaiming:

'Tho' critics may cavil *for ever and ever*,
I dread not their frown, nor solicit their favour;'

and thus in this very act of rejecting critical aid, he manifests his want of it. We were therefore prepared to expect, if not 'for ever and ever,' at least the *frequent recurrence* of lines too lame, trite, and vulgar for poetry; and which a Muse chastised in the school of elegant criticism would never have adopted. We do not mean, however, to impeach Mr. B.'s capacity so much as his negligence; for there are many lines in this poem which are creditable to his talents.

The notes at the bottom of each page explain every allusion in the verse, and add greatly to the value of the Survey: but the circumstance which most distinguishes it from all similar *guides* is that it is accompanied by numerous well executed copper plates, forming what is called a Magnificent Directory. Here much taste is displayed; and we should hence infer that the artists of Birmingham could execute the shield of Achilles, though no poet may be found competent to a description of it.

Mr. Bisset is the owner of a museum and repository for toys, jewellery, drawings, &c. near the Theatre, New-Street, Birmingham; and we have no doubt that his spirit and taste will meet with all the encouragement which they appear to deserve.

Art. 30. *An Ode on the Victory of the Nile*, 1st August, 1798, gained by Admiral Lord Nelson over the French Fleet, commanded by Admiral Brueys, in the Bay of Aboukir. 4to. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

This slight poetical celebration of the brilliant victory at Aboukir makes its appearance at the present juncture, on the occasion of Lord Nelson's return to his native land. We apprehend that the writer had Dryden's famous ode in his remembrance, when he composed these lines: how far the recollection animated his powers may perhaps be seen from the following specimen:

'On a foe in vain imploring,
Britain's thunders here are hurl'd;
In majestic terror pouring
The resentment of the world.
Fury leads the stern commotion,
Scattering carnage o'er the ocean;
Pain with fangs of blood is nigh;
Discord howls her troublous cry;
And death in every hideous form
Exults, the demon of the storm.
Sudden!—to the vaulted skies
Rushing flames volcanic rise;
Ruin breathing devastations,
Wakens the destructive fires,
Hope retreats, and life expires.—

Behold! the Gallic fleet that rode,
Boast of states, and pride of nations,
Sinking, sinking, sinking, sinking,
Deep in the relentless flood.'

rt. 31. *Bardomachia, Poema Macaronico-Latinum.* 4to. 1s. Johnson.

rt. 32. *Bardomachia*: or the Battle of the Bards. Translated from the Original (Macaronic) Latin. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

The two modern satirists, whose late *un-poetic* conflict is here narated with considerable genius and humour, have made themselves onspicuous objects for the exercise of their favourite profession. No wo bards ever more completely exposed themselves; and they must ubmit to be held up to ridicule, even while smarting under their ruises.

This macaronic Bardomachia may not give a very correct account f the manner in which the *ultima ratio blackguardorum* was conducted y the *high* contending parties; nor would we be so very fastidious s to require a rigid attention to dull matter of fact, from its witty atirical author. His latinity evinces an intimate acquaintance with he classics; and if we had any thing to object to him, it would be on he score of his not being sufficiently macaronic. His English maniests equal talents and playfulness. Without undertaking to decide ow far he has adhered to facts, we shall give the moral of his tale which remains unaffected by variations in the statements) as a specinen of his manner:

' Fabellam audistis. Fabellæ philosophema
Discite—Vos omnes, scribendi queis cacoethes,
Ante oculos semper retinete hortamina Flacci:
Sumite materiam vestris qui scribitis æquam
Viribus: et versate diu quid ferre recusent,
Quid valeant humeri—Non omnia possumus omnes.
' Præcipuè, libeat Satyrâ si pingere mores,
Sint chartæ nullo tinctæ livore maligno:
Plectatur vitium, parcatur sed vitioso:
Stultitiæ risus debetur—*pitya* stulto.
Quam minime valeant convicia, fædaque verba,
Exemplum clarè docet hoc—Bini ecce poetæ
Alternis sese probrosis rodere dictis
Certant—Quid sequitur? Sunt *both* ludibria turbæ!
Quis *pityæ* lacrumam, audito certamine, fundit;
Aut *spreadit* capiti violato vulnere *plastrum?*
Non ipsi *Bardi bardorum* sorte moventur:
Jure omnes factum conclamant; imaque circum
Omnia solvuntur fuso subsellia risu.'

' From personal abuse what evils rise,
This pat example sets before our eyes.
Had Pindar and Mæviades been men
Who never brandish'd a malignant pen—
Who never stain'd the candour of their paper
With the black snuffings of a smoking taper;

And given a consequential air of state
To all the low-born brats of Billingsgate:
Their, no mean, talents might have been employ'd
In writing rimes, that we could have enjoy'd:
And they, themselves, be, at this very hour,
Softly reposing in the Muses' bow'r:
Whereas, through mutual envy, mutual rage,
See them in base and bloody war engage;
Rake ev'ry dung-hill, loads of filth to throw
At one another—each a desp'rate foe!
What is the consequence? Both, with disgrace,
Become the scorn and laughter of the place;
The mocking-stock of even the populace.
Who, for their sake, a tear of pity sheds?
Or spreads a plaster for their batter'd heads?
E'en brother-bards regardless pass along,
And in loud laughter join the vulgar throng.'

We suspect that these effusions proceed from the pen of a learned gentleman, who has formerly amused the public with macaronic poems, and who is celebrated for works in the highest department of biblical criticism.

POLITICS, POLICE, &c.

Art. 33. *Authentic Copies of the Papers relative to the Commencement of Negociations for Peace with France*, as laid before both Houses of Parliament, 13th November, 1800. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

This correspondence sufficiently developes the object of the Chief Consul, and may be generally thought to justify our Government in rejecting the proposed naval armistice, as a previous condition of negociation. Perhaps the fear of our influence in the scale may have induced Bonaparte to ask high and extravagant terms; intending that, by our rejection of them, we should be excluded from taking a part in the Congress at Luneville.

Art. 34. *The celebrated Speech of the Hon. C. J. Fox*, with the Proceedings of the Meeting at the Shakespeare Tavern, October 10, 1800, being the Anniversary of his first Election for Westminster, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

With a strong and penetrating mind, Mr. Fox, here reviews the circumstances of the war; makes an open and undisguised avowal of his political principles; and declares that, in his opinion, the war is the *principal cause* of the high price of provisions.

Art. 35. *Anti-Revolutionary Thoughts of a Revolutionary Writer*: from the "Secret History of the Revolution of France," by Monsieur François Pagès. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1800.

Of M. Pagès's history we gave a long account in M. R. vol. xxiv. p. 290; and our critique would shew that it furnished abundant matter for such a compilation as that which is now before us.

It is observed by M. Pagès, that the revolution of France is attended with this particular circumstance; that 'it has been directed by several rival factions, all of them equally eager to destroy each

other

, and bent alike on raising the public opinion in their favour,
ery species of illusion that could tend to inveigle and mislead
eople.' Hence different sentiments have been disseminated at
ent times; and it may be added that writers, when the violent
ysms and exacerbations of a revolution are over, will venture
e condemnation of opinions and measures which, during the
sh state of the public mind, they may deem it both useless and
e harshly to censure. M. Pagès availed himself of the first
tunity of speaking with freedom; and many of his thoughts
rtainly of an anti-revolutionary complexion. Indeed, so full of
crime, and horror, has the French revolution been, that no
lican of sense and feeling can contemplate it without ex-
ions of disapprobation and grief.

the revolutions, counter-revolutions, insurrections, conspira-
assassinations, murders, massacres, usurpations, and tyrannies
ed by M. Pagès, the compiler of this pamphlet supposes that
parte is preparing an Appendix.

36. *Observations on the Objections made to the Export of Wool*
m Great Britain to Ireland. By John Lord Sheffield. 8vo. 2s.
ebrett. 1800.

this sensible pamphlet, the noble author endeavours to quiet the
s of our woollen manufacturers respecting a clause in the Act of
n, which allows the exportation of British wool to Ireland.
ontends that 'the permission to import wool from this country
Ireland may prevent its becoming a drug (as it sometimes has
); that it may prevent also its deterioration; and, moreover,
no more can go to Ireland than what our manufactures do not
.' He maintains, in opposition to some late assertions, that
growth of wool is greatly increased in England,' (for how
he asks, could there have been such an extraordinary increase
e manufacture*?) and that it is more than sufficient to supply
own manufactures: observing also, that 'Ireland has a con-
ible manufacture of woollens and mixtures of wool, and will
nue to have it whether wool shall be permitted to go thither
England or not.'

rd Sheffield offers other important considerations on this subject;
as a friend to the union, he speaks in the highest terms of the
y of this great measure.

37. *State of the Nation, with respect to its Funded Debt, Revenue,*
d Disbursements; comprized in the *Reports* of the Select Com-
ttee appointed by the House of Commons: With an *Appendix*
each Report. Also, to enquire into the Receipts and Dis-
rsements of the different Public Offices, &c. Vol. III. 8vo.
. Boards. Symonds. 1799.

our 26th vol. N.S. p. 351. we gave a brief account of the
re and importance of this valuable compilement. The present
me contains the Reports concerning the Barrack and Ordnance
es, the Exchequer, Public Revenue and Expenditure, Privy

In 1782 it was estimated at 14,000,000l.; in 1791 at 19,000,000l.

Council and Privy Seal Offices, and Courts of Justice; with the names of the principal officers, their revenues, fees, duties, &c.

Art. 38. *State of the Nation*, comprized in the Reports of the Select Committee appointed by the House of Commons to examine and state the total Amount of the Public Debts and of the Interest and Charges attending the same, viz. Police, Stationary Office, Civil Government of Scotland, Admiralty, Dock-yards, and Transports, Victualling Office, Sick and Wounded Seamen, Chatham Chest, and Greenwich and Chelsea Hospitals: with the Names of the principal Officers, their Salaries, Fees, Duties, and Attendance; with what other Places, Pensions, or Employments they hold, paid by the Public. Vol. IV. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Symonds. 1800.

We are glad to see this undertaking so successfully continued. The historian and the politician will, doubtless, consider it as a valuable storehouse, or magazine, of important and authentic information.

Art. 39. *An Address to the good Sense and Candour of the People*, in behalf of the Dealers in Corn: with some few Observations on a late Trial for Regrating. By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 178. 3s. 6d. Egerton, &c. 1800.

To combat those prejudices and misconceptions, however and wherever they originate, which have a tendency to awaken the mob to undertake the redress of grievances, is to act at once patriotically and loyally. When the dearness of corn instigates the populace, with a mistaken rage against farmers and corn-dealers, to destroy barns, ricks, granaries, and mills, it may be in vain perhaps to call out to them "*Vestras spes uritis:*" but it may be of great use to invite the sober and reflecting among the middle classes of society, to a temperate and calm inquiry into the real cause of the evil; for, as the motto to this pamphlet says, "Clamour is not reason—assertion fact—nor accusation guilt."—The gentleman who here boldly steps forwards, we learn from the advertisement of a second edition of his pamphlet, is Sir Thomas Turton; and, even in opposition to a high legal opinion, he pleads the cause of the whole description of corn-dealers, and pronounces the clamours against them to be 'senseless.' He contends that monopoly is not the cause of the high price of bread; and that to encourage such an idea, in these times, is extremely dangerous. He combats Lord Kenyon's opinion on the subject of regrating, and perhaps the arguments which he has employed may not be disregarded even by his Lordship. Sir Thomas considers the case of the farmer—the miller and mealman—the flour-factor—the baker—the merchant—the importer—the lighterman and warehouseman—the jobber or middle man—and the corn-chandler. He particularly comments on the late trial and decision in the case of Mr. John Rusby, and concludes with this general doctrine: 'That the commercial prosperity of a great nation will be in proportion to the protection and encouragement which every man in it receives, to employ his talents, his industry, and his property, in that line most conformable to his views or inclinations.'

This we believe to be sound argument, which the operation of no temporary circumstance should be supposed to invalidate.

Art. 40. *Observations on the present high Price of Provisions.* In a Letter to the Lord Lieutenant and Inhabitants of Hampshire. By John Duthy, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

It is the object of this writer to establish an assertion which the Minister has roundly denied, viz. that the *War* is the master-mischief from which the high price of provisions originates. For this purpose, Mr. D. does not content himself with bare assertions, but adduces facts, and argues on them with temper. After having made what he conceives to be a fair deduction from a statement which he thinks himself justified in considering as tolerably correct, he says that there remain '*two hundred and ninety-three thousand unproductive members of society, to be provided for, more than in time of peace;*' and to prove how the care of Government in feeding this vast military force operates in augmenting the price of the necessaries of life, he observes that, 'when every one caters for himself, he provides no more than he can consume: but when provision is made for collected numbers, waste must inevitably ensue.' Again, 'Even if the same quantity of food was consumed by the same body of men when maintaining themselves, (which has been shewn not to be the case,) there is a material difference between the silent and imperceptible operation of supplying the wants of 200,000 individuals, catering each for himself, when and where he can best be supplied; and that of satisfying the imperious necessities of the same number collected into large bodies.'

The author ridicules the idea of monopoly * among the farmers, and concludes with energetically exhorting the people to petition the Throne for an immediate PEACE, as the only means of saving the country.

Art. 41. *Strictures on the true Cause of the present alarming Scarcity of Grain and other Provisions;* and a Plan for permanent Relief: Humbly submitted to Public Consideration. By Alexander Annesley. With an historical Deduction of the Prices of Provisions, interspersed with various Matters connected with the Commerce and Navigation of Great Britain. Together with a Chronological Account of the several Statutes, Proclamations, and Parliamentary Regulations, for controuling the Markets, and preventing Monopoly, Engrossing, &c. &c. from the Norman Conquest to the present Æra. 8vo. 2s. Murray and Co.

This pamphlet has a complexion and a tendency very different from those which mark the Observations of Mr. Duthy, mentioned in the preceding article. It is prefaced by a dedication to Mr. Pitt, who is compared to the angel which, by divine command,

> "Rides in the whirlwind, and directs the storm;"

and here we read of *famine* in the midst of *plenty!* scarcity at a time of *unequalled exuberance!* and *factitious dearth*, in spite of *superior fecundity!* Yet, though Mr. A. is lavish of his encomiums on the

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* If monopoly exists any where, he contends it is with the *Minister*, who has so many thousands constantly to feed.

Minister, it cannot be suspected that his theme was furnished by the Cabinet; since it is completely at variance with the Duke of Portland's Letter, lately published in the newspapers, which makes no mention of 'superior fecundity*.' According to Mr. A. 'The war has been the *pretext*, rather than the *cause* of the high price of every article of subsistence;' and as to our increased expences, they are only the natural result of the additional resources which are created by the war. Britain's attitude is noble and imposing, while France is only 'a monstrous *chimæra*,' having 'a *Corsican keeper*.'—However, the high price of provisions being indisputable, it is admitted that something must be done to ease the people; and Mr. Annesley advises a bounty on *production* rather than on importation; that all grain should be subject to *the operation of the excise laws;* and that public granaries and additional corn-mills should be erected at the public expence: for he would make it appear that the delinquency, which enhances the price of grain, rests with those who are employed in passing it from the *farmer* to the *consumer*.

Some remarks on the mode of conducting inclosures, and on giving encouragement to boat-fisheries, merit attention. At present, private individuals are more benefited by inclosures than the public: from the poor, their little commonable rights are often taken without an adequate compensation; and the parochial assessments are increased. If the inclosure of large wastes could be made on the principle of *home colonization*, and Government would adopt the hint of Mr. A., some employment and provision could be made for our soldiers and sailors at the return of peace; while the internal strength and resources of the empire would be increased. Government would make a judicious expenditure of public money, in an experiment of this kind in the New Forest.

Mr. A.'s historical deduction of the price of provisions (taken in a great measure from Fleetwood's *Chronicon Preciosum*,) is curious, and contains some useful hints. Our ancestors, he observes, endeavoured as much as possible to prevent any *middle man* from coming in between the *grower* and the *consumer*.

Art. 42. *The Cause of the present threatened Famine traced to its real Source*, viz. An actual Depreciation of our circulating Medium, occasioned by the Paper Currency, with which the War, the Shock given to Public Credit in 1794, the Stoppage of the Bank in 1797, and the Bankruptcies of Hamburgh in 1799, inundated the Country, to accommodate Government, and enable the Merchants to keep up the Price of their Merchandize; shewing by an Arithmetical Calculation, founded on Facts, the Extent, nay, the very Mode of the Progress which the Paper System has made, in reducing the People to Paupers. With its only apparent practicable Remedy. By Common Sense. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

From the title of this pamphlet, the reader will conjecture that it is not, like the foregoing, dedicated to the Minister, nor written to support his measures. Here the war is pronounced 'unchristian and fatal*,' and its 'objects visionary:' though the author, who declares himself a *Scotchman*, does not declaim against it on any moral principle, but as depreciating the value of money, as increasing its quantity either really or nominally, and as thus necessarily affecting the price of provisions. He considers *money* as a commodity, the quantity of which must invariably govern its value; so that, if the *circulating medium* be increased from 18,000,000 (the estimated quantity at the Revolution) to 90,000,000, the necessaries of life must be five to one dearer; and he therefore denies that either the growers or dealers in the necessaries of life are, *in the first instance*, the cause of the *dearness of things*, which he would call *the cheapness of money*. He states that the public evil attaching to any increase of our circulating medium is twofold, viz. the additional interest to be paid by labour, and a depreciation on the circulating medium.

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* In p. 8, he speaks of '*plentiful* and *exuberant* harvests.' This is not the language of the Duke of P.'s letter.

To remedy the evil of *dearness*, this writer recommends the dissolution of paper currency,—the removal of the exclusive monopoly of money from the Bank,—and a new, very new, principle of taxation; that the men of wealth shall pay all taxes, and the laborious classes be exempt.—If the cure cannot be effected without the application of these remedies, we fear that it is very remote.

This writer attributes the *Chronicon Preciosum* to *Stillingfleet* instead of to Fleetwood.

Art. 43. *The whole Proceedings and Resolutions of the Freeholders of the County of Middlesex*, at a Meeting publicly convened and held by the High Sheriff at Hackney, Oct. 29, 1800, where it was unanimously resolved that the War is the Cause of the alarming High Price of Provisions, &c. &c. &c. Also, a very interesting Debate on the Parliamentary Conduct of Mr. Byng and Mr. Mainwaring, the present Representatives of the County. To which is added, The Prospect of Famine clearly demonstrated by his Grace the Duke of Portland, in his Letters to Mr. Wakefield, Mayor of Nottingham, and the Lord Lieutenant of the County of Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

This pamphlet is composed of materials which have been amply detailed in the newspapers, and of which we leave the public to form their own opinion. There may be writers who will discuss the policy of the Duke of Portland's letters.

Art. 44. *Thoughts on the present Prices of Provisions*, their Causes and Remedies; addressed to all Ranks of People. By an Independent Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 87. Reynolds. 1800.

Under the very difficult and alarming circumstances of the present times, this publication is intitled to peculiar consideration: since it appears to come from the pen of no party-man, and certainly no superficial writer, but from a gentleman who has reflected on the subject, who seems to be actuated by the most liberal motives, and who has given to his thoughts a clear arrangement. Without formal preface, or preamble, he enters on the interesting discussion.—The causes of the present high prices he pronounces to be deep and complicated, and he conceives them to be included in the following enumeration:

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* It is called 'a war *of victory by sea and of famine by land*,' p. 7.

1. A deficiency in the harvest of 1799. 2. Impediments thrown in the way of imports from the Baltic. 3. The increase of taxation. 4. The increase of real capital. 5. The increase of artificial capital by paper circulation, to an enormous amount; particularly through the medium of country banks. 6. The great increase of wealth among the farmers. 7. The increase of a spirit of narrow selfishness, rapacity, and speculation. 8. The state of the warfare in which we are engaged, 'which in course throws something into the scale of evil, by inducing a more wasteful consumption, necessitating contracts of a large and expensive description, and obstructing to a certain degree the channels of external supply.'

Though the author proceeds to observe, that to some of these causes of evil no sensible (at least no immediate) remedy can be applied, yet he is of opinion that there are measures, the application of which would effect singular benefits to the country. With the spirit of a Briton, he scouts the idea of negociating an unsafe and inglorious peace with our insulting foe, for the purpose of obtaining relief from present scarcity. He would seek a remedy by other means. He recommends, 1. To take an accurate account of the grain in the island. 2. Of live stock. 3. That magazines of rice be formed in different parts of the kingdom; and, 4thly and principally, that the magistrates be authorized to fix and publish a *maximum* of prices, both of provisions and labour, in their respective districts. This last point, to which the writer was aware great opposition would be made, is discussed with much ability. He distinctly states and replies to the several objections which will probably be urged; and we must do him the justice to confess that his remarks have made a considerable impression on our minds, though we are not entire converts to his doctrine, that his proposed maximum 'is necessary to lay the giant that now oppresses us in the dust.' So far, however, we agree with him, that the measures of importation and cultivation of wastes, recommended by the highest authority, may fall short of the public expectation, and that we should not depend too much on them. Speaking of the latter, he says that 'he has the mortification of thinking, that not only no immediate resource can be derived from its adoption; but that little, if any in future, in the diminution of prices, is likely to flow from it,' because he conceives that the population will grow in proportion to the improvement. This idea is farther illustrated in p. 30.

The inadequacy of the several palliatives which have been recommended, and in part adopted, is here sufficiently exposed; yet not so as to prove the expediency and justice of the author's favourite *maximum* on articles of prime necessity. The instances adduced of established maximums in the interest of money, and in the assize of bread, are not strictly analogous to the case of the farmer; and surely the farmer would have reason to complain, if the merchant and shopkeeper were not laid under a similar restraint. However, the writer speaks with perfect confidence of the propriety and success of his proposed measure; and he roundly asserts that '*no alternative* remains for our choice, but either to *compel* an immediate reduction of price, or destroy every manufacture and small fortune in the kingdom.'

Again, towards the conclusion; 'an *adjustment of prices* is the *only* measure calculated to afford the most distant chance of cure for the enormous and inveterate malady of the land, and of restoring her to her sound and pristine health *in an instant.*'

This assertion not only appears to be extravagant, but does not square with the admission in the 4th page, that many of the causes of the present evil do not admit of an immediate remedy.

The author denies, in opposition to the Duke of Portland's letter, that there is a real scarcity, and that the last harvest was deficient.

Art. 45. *Thoughts and Details on Scarcity,* originally presented to the Right Hon. William Pitt, in November, 1795. By the late Right Honourable Edmund Burke. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1800.

To many who may wish to see the opinions of the late Mr. Burke, on a subject which now so seriously occupies the thoughts of the community, this publication will probably be acceptable. It is composed from a memorial formerly presented to government, by this celebrated author; who here proceeds on the principle of Dr. Adam Smith, that all trade should be free; and who therefore does not recommend the particular interference of Government by compulsory acts and regulations: observing that, 'to provide for us in our necessities is not in the power of Government,' and that 'all compulsory equalizations pull down what is above, but never raise what is below.' So far was he from wishing to subject the farmer to peculiar restrictions, that he maintains that there cannot be a greater and more ruinous mistake, than so say that the trades of agriculture and grazing can be conducted on any other than the common principles of commerce. Enlightened statesmen are, we believe, generally of this opinion; and only particular and accidental pressures excite a different sentiment: in seasons of plenty and peace, who would advise Government to those measures of coercion for which some are now so strenuous?—Mr. Burke was averse from the scheme of public granaries, by which the Government becomes a buyer and seller of corn, and the people are fed out of the hands of the magistrates.

There are good sound principles in this pamphlet, mixed with some of Mr. Burke's peculiar assertions and sentiments.

Art. 46. *An Investigation of the Cause of the present High Price of Provisions.* By the Author of the Essay on the Principle of Population. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

The *Essay on Population,* by which the author gained some reputation, was noticed in our 27th vol. N. S. p. 1. The present Investigation has the misfortune of endeavouring to account for a great and complicated evil chiefly from an individual cause. The writer supposes that the system of poor laws, and parish allowances, have operated principally in raising provisions to their present high prices; since by these means the power of purchasing was increased in the market beyond what it otherwise would have been. He has little hopes from legislative interference, and is of opinion that the abolition of the assize would be a benefit.

Art. 47. *Thoughts on Scarcity, and Remedies suggested.* By the Rev. James Matthews, M. A. Curate of Ford, Salop. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

Some persons are shocked, but we are amused, by clashing opinions. While the author of the preceding Investigation questions whether any good will result from the interference of Parliament, Mr. Matthews begins his contribution of advice (of which apparently there is *no scarcity*) by assuring us that 'it is from Parliament *alone* we can hope for redress; and although it cannot "command the stones to be made bread," it is omnipotent enough to enact such regulations as will, under Divine Providence, prevent the return of similar visitations.' If, however, the present scarcity be a *visitation*, does not Mr. M., in this compliment, place Parliament *above*, instead of *under* Divine Providence? He differs from the preceding writer not only as to the ability of Parliament, but also as to the cause of the present distress; conceiving it to arise from the consolidation of small farms, which he asserts to be the greatest grievance, morally and politically considered, under which the country labours. The operation of this system is minutely detailed; and in some respects it may be an evil: but will it account for the difficulty of the present moment? Since the consolidation of farms, have not provisions been at a moderate price?

Art. 48. *Inquiry into the Causes and Remedies of the late and present Scarcity and high Price of Provisions*, in a Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Spencer, K.G. &c. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

We have perused this Inquiry with considerable pleasure, since it contains an enlarged and dispassionate view of the interesting subject which it professes to discuss. The ingenious author, who is a disciple of Dr. Adam Smith, contends for a free and unrestrained trade in articles of provisions, as in other commodities; and he opposes those prejudices against middle men and forestallers, which some men, in elevated stations, have lately cherished. Government, he thinks, ought no farther to interfere in the market than to produce security and competition. He is of opinion that 'the want of a surplus essentially distinguishes this year from former years, and goes far towards explaining the continuation of the high prices, more especially when it is taken into account, that the present crop is *considerably* below an average one, and that the potatoes have greatly failed this year.' Of the latter part of this statement we have some doubt, but none of the former; yet we allow, in the fullest extent, the necessity of economy to carry us round the year.

The bad season being admitted as the principal occasion of dearness, the writer proceeds to mention some other subordinate causes; among which he introduces the increased consumption in consequence of the war, which he calculates at one-thirty-sixth part of the whole; and then, in order to prove that this weighs little in the scale, he asks, 'What should we say to the master of a family who should allege, that he has wherewithal amply to maintain thirty-six persons, but that if a single one were added, it would be productive of the greatest distress to the whole?' As far as mere quantity is concerned, the question is easily answered: but the manner of obtaining it in large masses for armies and navies, by the agents for Government, has also

ect in raising the price. By the public, provisions are drawn
the market in innumerable little channels: but Government at
pens a sluice.—The author recommends, as a remote remedy
e evil of scarcity, the bringing of waste lands into cultivation;
it as a point demonstrated that our agriculture is not equal to our
ition; and for immediate resources, he advises importation—
olition of the assize—taking steps to stop prosecutions against
s in corn, and to quiet popular prejudices against them—en-
g the act of last session, respecting stale bread—and to stop the
ries, and the making of starch and hair powder.
concludes with protesting against the measure of a *maximum*.

49. *A Temperate Discussion of the Causes which have led to the*
ent high Price of Bread. Addressed to the Plain Sense of the
ple. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

nper and good sense certainly discover themselves in this
let; the author of which assumes, in a great measure, the prin-
laid down in the *Inquiry* just mentioned. He contends that
gh price of wheat and bread is not the effect of monopoly and
uation;—nor of the speculations of the farmer, the corn-dealer,
miller;—nor the consequence of the war;—though these things
ave had their weight in the scale. He observes that the late
as been remarkably uneven; and that, (in addition to the cir-
nce of a harvest on the whole perhaps defective,) the failure of
rnip crops having left more land open for wheat, and the fine-
f the sowing season having caused more wheat to be sown,
h for the present has somewhat interrupted the threshing of corn
rket,) the dearness of the moment has thus been augmented.
ause, however, cannot be of long duration, and will tend to pro-
more abundant harvest for the next year.—The quantity of
orn, we are here informed, is estimated at not less than six or
weeks consumption.

50. *Corn Trade. An Examination of certain Commercial Prin-*
s in their Application to Agriculture and the Corn Trade, as laid
n in the Fourth Book of Mr. (Dr.) Adam Smith's Treatise
the Wealth of Nations. With Proposals for Revival of the
utes against Forestalling, &c. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

Adam Smith's *principles of free trade*, and his arguments in
upport, are admitted by this examiner to be just and good, as
enerally relate to articles of trade and commerce: but he con-
hat an exception ought to be made with respect to bread corn,
at the dealers in it ought to have the arm of regulation and
held over them. To his reasoning we have given our best
on: but it has been insufficient to make us converts to his doc-
We are of opinion that the country would not be benefited by
islative interference which he recommends. Evils of one kind
a certain degree generate evils of another: but, in seasons of
arcity, the very circumstance of *feeding* the market, which he
to the jobber, is an advantage. Then the interest of the
is as much concerned in withholding from as in supplying the
s.

Art. 51. *Patriotic Competition against Self-interested Combination, recommended;* by a [an] Union between the Nobility, the Landed, and Independent Interest, the Clergy, and Consumer; with a View of reducing Commodities from their Money, or Market, Price, to their Real, or Labour, Price. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

The national debt and taxes, war, the abuse of the paper system, the manœuvres of trade, and an insufficient supply of grain, are here considered as the sources of our existing evils. The remedies suggested are of a two-fold nature: such as must flow from the legislature, and such as depend on the exertions of individuals. To the latter, the attention of the public is here more particularly directed. Noblemen, gentlemen, clergy, and persons in the higher classes of society, are exhorted to associate for the purpose of forming—*county* banks; to enable the county to purchase articles of provision by wholesale and by importation, with the view of retailing them to *consumers*, through the medium of public shops, &c. We may be excused from detailing the particulars of this plan; which, in our opinion, is too wild and indigested to attract much attention in the present distressed state of the kingdom.

Art. 52. *The Rights of the Poor considered;* with the Causes and Effects of Monopoly, and a Plan of Remedy by means of a popular progressive Excise. By George Brewer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

In reviewing the *scarcity pamphlets*, (which, regardless of the *scarcity of paper*, have issued in such abundance from the press,) we have been obliged to content ourselves with little more than taking a rapid glance at their contents, without diverging into separate discussion: but the publication now before us would almost tempt us to deviate from the practice which we have pursued, did not our time and limits forbid. On the state of the poor*, and on the impolicy of our legal system and general conduct respecting them, much might be said in addition to Mr. Brewer's just and humane observations. Our union of opinion, however, is but partial. We do not admire his reasoning against Dr. Adam Smith, nor his insinuation that 'the English corn-dealer may shake hands with the Dutch spice-merchant.' Declamations against monopoly, forestalling, engrossing, &c. may be well meant: but, being of an inflammatory nature, they are likely to produce more harm than good. We were surprized that Mr. B. after his condemnations of monopolists, should speak in favour of a particular monopoly†; and, with a total forgetfulness of the universal spirit of trade, attribute that to pure benevolence which must to a considerable extent have been prompted, as all trading combinations are, by motives of gain. As to his project of a system of excise extending to the farmer and corn dealer, with a regular board of commissioners and subordinate officers, we shall only observe that we are not yet converts to the plan.

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* The general solicitude seems to extend to making provisions for the poor, while we are inattentive to the more essential point of leading them to be provident for themselves.

† The London Flour Company.

. *A short Enquiry into the Nature of Monopoly and Fore-*
r. A Third Edition, with considerable Additions. By Ed-
Morris, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and
s. 1800.

mer edition of this well-written and able pamphlet was noticed
vol. 20. p.115. N. S.; and considering the narrow views which
rate on the minds of sensible men respecting the corn-trade,
blication with additions is very seasonable. Mr. Morris is a
, and well defends the principle (now combated by some) laid
the author of "The Wealth of Nations", respecting the
licy of allowing the freedom of trade. He maintains that the
of the corn-dealer and of the public are inseparable; and
ance of price is the best way of enforcing public œconomy.
es that there can be a combination, to any serious extent, for
he price of grain; and he is of opinion that the supply of the
judiciously regulated by corn-dealers, and at the least expence.
erve corn at one time, in order to distribute it at another; or
corn from any one market, in order to convey it to another;
s no national evil; the corn is equally consumed, though the
which consume it are not the same: so far from having any
al effect, if the scarcity in the market to which it is conveyed
er than in that from which it was taken, the public are greatly
Our object ought to be, not that corn or any other article
ion should be plentiful at any particular time or any particular
ut that it should be found plentiful, if possible, but at all
equal distribution, throughout the different periods of the
d over every part of the kingdom.'
is the true light in which the subject ought to be contem-
To a supply from abroad, we must add judicious manage-
home.

PHILOSOPHY.

. *Elements of the Chemical and Natural History of Mineral*
nces. By M. Brisson, Professor in the Central Schools of
; translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 149. 4s. Wal-
kc.

ave taken notice of the original of this work in page 565 of
vol. The translation appears on perusal to be very accu-
l to retain all the clearness and perspicuity which characte-
excellent elementary book. No superfluous notes have been
it, but only a few simple explanations, where they were ab-
requisite. Works like this ought always to be given in
ginal shape; they cannot but lose some of their merit, if they
r abridged or extended.

SINGLE SERMONS.

On the Origin of Government, and the Excellence of the British
ution, preached at the Assizes holden for the County of
ampton, 5th March, 1800, before Sir Soulden Laurence,
and Arthur Palmer, Esq. By Daniel Lancaster, A. B.
of South Stoneham. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

Submission to government justly appointed, and to righteous and reasonable laws, is the dictate of nature and religion; and this, we conceive, is that for which this writer pleads. He applauds the Revolution in 1688, deprecates Jacobinism, commends the present Administration, and very properly exhorts us to the 'conscientious discharge of the duties of our respective professions;' since, he observes, 'good laws without good morals will soon lose their influence; and the best government under a relaxation of manners is hastening to decay.'

The discourse is well written.

Art. 56. *The proper Improvement of Divine Chastening, recommended to National Attention.* Preached at Clapham, 12th March, 1800, by T. Urwick. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

We think that this must be acknowleged to be a plain, serious, and useful discourse, whether the reader approves all the sentiments which it contains, or is inclined to dispute some of the author's remarks. Without at present entering into a particular discussion of any such points, we would join in recommending that repentance, reformation, and proper improvement of our great national calamities, which are calmly and affectionately urged by this respectable preacher.

Art. 57. *The Superiority of Religious Duties to Worldly Considerations.* Preached at the Unitarian Chapel in Essex-Street, London. April 20, 1800. By John Disney, D. D. F. A. S. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

This discourse is pointed against a parent-vice of the present age, from which many others derive their being. When moral and religious principle is daily sacrificed for the mean considerations of vanity, pride, and worldly interest, it is the duty of the Christian preacher to expostulate with his fellow-creatures, on the extreme folly as well as wickedness of such a conduct. Dr. D. has performed this duty with seriousness, and has shewn the wisdom of making every sublunary object subservient to our obedience to the will of God.

Art. 58. Preached in the Chapels of Princes-Street, Westminster, on February 16th, and Essex-Street, Strand, on February 23d, 1800, by Joshua Toulmin, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

An excellent Discourse, tending to correct a prevalent and mischievous mistake. The subject is, "The *Lord of hosts* is his name." Jer. xxxii. 18.—This title, so appropriate to Jehovah, is sometimes considered as meaning, 'the God of *armies* or of battles,' intimating 'that he favours these hosts with a peculiar care;' and 'thus men are led to conceive (says this writer) that in the title of the "Lord of hosts" there is a sanction to political hostility and blood-shed.'—It is by no means surprizing that Voltaire should have availed himself of this misapprehension, to point his arrows against Divine revelation: but it might have been expected that Christian ministers, instead of countenancing, would apply themselves to rectify the error.

Dr. Toulmin observes that 'the English word *Host* corresponds to three different words in the Hebrew; two of which appear to signify camps, or bodies of men equipped for the field, and disposed in military order. The third word, which is used in the text, viz. Sabaoth*, and is the only term of the three connected with the name of God, and used as expressive of his character, seldom signifieth military bodies of men, and is of wide and extensive import:—it includes and chiefly intends the heavenly bodies; the sun, the moon, and the stars.'—This explication is supported by several just remarks; and Dr. T. hence draws the inference that this name of God has been greatly mistaken and abused, when it has been supposed to teach us to look up to him as the patron of *war*:—'it is consolation to reflect, that like other evils, this is under the controul of the supreme Lord of heaven and earth; and will be over-ruled, by his commanding influence, to do good: but it is not from his delight in it, nor his agency in it, that the Almighty derives his name, *The Lord of Hosts.* This title proceeds from his being the Creator and Sovereign of all things in heaven and earth.'

There was a peculiar propriety in the title on another account; as the God of the Jews, the only true God, formed all those bodies, the host of heaven, which the nations around adored and worshipped as their deities. Here the author finds an argument highly favourable to the divinity of the Old Testament; and he proceeds to observe; 'what a glorious and magnificent conception doth this subject lead us to form of the Great Jehovah.—They who interpret this title to signify "the God of battle," or the Lord of military force, will, on consideration perceive, that they give a low, and certainly very contracted idea of the first and greatest Being: not at all correspondent to the design, with which we see, the terms are used in the Scriptures. There, the name denotes a supreme creating power, a supreme all-commanding Providence.'

The sermon concludes with a direction to 'unite with the consideration of this glorious and awful name, the character under which the gospel particularly delights to represent the Divine Being, namely as the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ, and as our Father in heaven.' The candid and attentive reader will not be surprized that this sermon is published in consequence of earnest request.

Art. 59. Preached at the Parish-Church in Beverley, March 12, 1800, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev. Robert Rigby, Vicar. 8vo. 6d. Scatcherd.

This is one among the best discourses that we have perused on such an occasion: not that it is remarkable for flights of oratory, beauty of language, or depth of reasoning, (though it is by no means defective in these respects,) but on account of the plain, serious, and sensible manner in which it exposes vice, and urges reformation, as the most likely and effectual means of removing public calamities, and of restoring national peace and prosperity. The author, having been requested by several who heard the sermon, to furnish them with a copy of it, has been induced to make it public. 'General complaints,

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* Should not this word be rather written *Tzabaoth*, to distinguish it from *Sabbath*, which to the mere English reader it may appear greatly to resemble?

(he remarks) of the infidelity and profligacy of the times, however just, are not calculated to produce conviction. Pointing out local disorders, which every man may endeavour to correct, seems more likely to do good.'

' *To the* EDITOR *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

' SIR, Nov. 18, 1800.

' IN the review of my Translation of Schiller's Wallenstein (Rev. for October) I am numbered among the Partizans of the German Theatre. As I am confident that there is no passage in my Preface or Notes from which such an opinion can be legitimately formed; and, as the truth would not have been exceeded, if the directly contrary had been affirmed, I claim it of your justice that in your answers to Correspondents you would remove this misrepresentation. The mere circumstance of translating a manuscript play is not even evidence that I admired that one play, much less that I am a general admirer of the plays in that language.

' I remain, Sir, with respect, &c.

' Your humble servant,

' Greta Hall, Keswick.' ' S. T. COLERIDGE.'

As Mr. Coleridge has thought it worth his while to transmit the above letter, we readily insert it: but we do not see that the matter to which it relates is of much importance. We used the words "partizan of the German theatre" solely with reference to the occasion on which they were written: but perhaps the expression was too comprehensive.

We are obliged to *a Columbian*: but, as we never wish to come in contact with a chimney-sweeper, we shall keep our distance from the object which he recommends to our notice.

Our Sunderland Correspondent's observations, respecting Mr. Godwin's *St. Leon*, (see Rev. Sept. last,) were probably penned as he says "*currente curru.*" Had he been in his library, he would have seen that Swift's *Struldbrug* could not have been the prototype of St. Leon; since, though the Luggnaggian immortals are represented as disgusting objects, Mr. Godwin's hero does not appear in that light; nor do his miseries arise from the weakness and debility of age. E. M. however, might have approached the truth, if he had intimated that the supposed notions of Gulliver, respecting the great advantages to be derived from sublunary immortality, might have furnished Mr. Godwin with some thoughts in his Romance.

A letter relative to Bossuet's Sermons, mentioned in this Number, was received too late for compliance with the request contained in it.

H. E. of Oxford has misconstrued our silenee. His former letter is yet under consideration.

☞ In the Review for October, p. 211. l. 7. from bott. for 'seriously weigh well,' r. *seriously to weigh.*

THE
ONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1800.

I. *The Geographical System of Herodotus examined and explained;*
ı Comparison with those of other ancient Authors, and with
ern Geography. In the Course of the Work are introduced,
ertations on the Itinerary Stade of the Greeks, the Expedi-
of Darius Hystaspes to Scythia, the Position and Remains
ncient Babylon, the Alluvions of the Nile, and Canals of Suez;
Oasis, and Temple of Jupiter Ammon, the ancient Circumnavi-
on of Africa, and other Subjects of History and Geography;
Whole explained by Eleven Maps, adapted to the different
jects; and accompanied with a complete Index. By James
nell, Fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh,
late Major of Engineers, and Surveyor General in Bengal.
pp. 766. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

: geographical notices which we find in Herodotus occur
cidentally in the course of his narrative, and are designed
: more lucid explanation of the transactions which he
s. Geography, as a distinct science, was far from his
nplation; and to countries into which he is not carried
: natural progress of events, he seldom conducts his
s. The provinces bordering on the Egean sea, the Pro-
, and the Euxine, might have engaged his attention, to
clusion of the rest of Europe, had not the vengeance or
licy of Darius Hystaspes led him from the banks of
anube to the course of the Don; a tract which at
ime circumscribed the land of the Scythians:—but
:, in the idea of Herodotus, stretched a wide extent
erless region, from the banks of the latter river to the
which washed on the east the extreme shores of the
se; and he might smile at the absurdity of those who
compare Asia or Africa to Europe, for extent of surface.
Euxine, the Colchian Phasis, and the Caspian, sepa-
European Scythia from the polished empires of Asia;
the isthmus of Suez, or the eastern frontiers of Egypt,
d the commencement of Africa. A thick cloud hung

over the western countries of Europe; the Cassiterides were only known as isles which supplied the Phenicians with tin, but Herodotus could never discover where they were situated; and the Celtæ were supposed to inhabit the countries in which the Danube has its source, and to border on the Cynetæ, who dwelled near the setting sun.

> " *Qua syderalis lucis inclinatio est,*
> *Alte tumescens ditis Europæ extimum*
> *In belluosi vergit oceani salum.*"

The unfortunate expedition of Darius, which is the subject of the 6th section of the elaborate work now before us, partly dispelled the gloom which obscured the east. On the deeply indented banks of the Euxine, the wandering tribes of Royal Scythians tended their flocks, and guarded with unerring bow the sepulchres of their ancestors. A few tribes practised agriculture in the days of Herodotus: but the majority of their descendants still lead a pastoral life, and rove on horseback over the same plains which were invaded by Darius. On the peninsula now called Crimea, the inhospitable Tauri (a nation not Scythian) sacrificed strangers to their barbarous goddess. On the north, dwelled the Agathyrsæ, an effeminate tribe; the Neuri, who once in a year became wolves; and the Androphagi and Melancthleni, whose names describe the ferocity of their manners.

Such were the nations which occupied the tract between the Danube and the Don. The climate was cold to excess; the soil produced few trees, and nourished few inhabitants, while their traditions indicated a recent settlement. On the eastern banks of the Don (Tanais) were seated the Sauromatæ, who boasted their descent from the Amazons; on the north, the Budini wandered through forests between the Don and the Wolga (Oarus); an extensive desert separated them from the Thyssagetæ, and terminated the march of Darius in that direction, probably near Saratau, on the Wolga. A digression purely geographical conducts us eastward.

The Thyssagetæ lived by the chace on the western banks of the Wolga, probably between the parallels of 52° and 54° north. On the eastern bank, we find the Jyrcæ, called by Pliny, Turcæ; and beyond them a tribe of Royal Scythians, who had emigrated from the Ukraine. Hitherto, the country is flat, and covered with thick woods: but farther east, at the foot of lofty mountains, (probably the Riphean of Pliny,) dwell the Argippei, who are bald from their infancy, having large chins and nostrils like apes. The Issedones come next, celebrated for their love of justice, and their deference for females.

These Major Rennell supposes to be the Tartars of Eigur, who are represented as the only, or the most, lettered of the Tartar tribes; and distinguished by the historians of China under the name of Eluths. Unhappily, the station assigned to them by Herodotus does not favor this supposition. On the east of the Issedones, reside the Atimaspi, a warlike nation, described by Aristeas of Proconnesus as "rich in horses, in herds of cattle, and flocks of sheep; they have only one eye on their charming faces." At the extremity of the east, were the Gryphons, whose country yielded gold; a fatal gift, which exposed them to continual incursions from their one-eyed neighbours. On the north of all these nations, stretched an inhospitable region, inhabited by the Hyperboreans; whose territory extended to an ocean of doubtful existence, which seemed to wash the northern shores of the European continent.

Asia is divided by Herodotus into four regions. The 1st comprises the countries between the gulph of Persia, and the eastern part of the Euxine; which, he says, is occupied by four nations, the Persians, Medes, Sapirians, and Colchians. 2d. From the first to the Hellespont, including not fewer than thirty nations. 3d. The southern region comprehending Persia proper, Assyria, and Arabia; to which he assigns only three nations. 4th. The eastern region bounded by the Caspian and Sirr (Jaxartes, or Araxes according to Herodotus) on the north, and extending eastward to India; beyond which the whole country is one vast desert, unexplored and unknown.

The Massagetæ inhabit the tract to the east of the Caspian: but Herodotus mistakes the river which flows through it, and which he names Araxes, for the river of that name on the western side of the Caspian. Their inferior tribes were denominated Sacæ, Dahæ, Jaxartæ, Abii, Pasiani, and Tochari; of which appellations Major Rennell finds traces in the modern Saganian, Dahistan, and Tokharistan. Excepting the northern Massagetæ, the whole of antient Asia was united in one vast empire; and the luxurious monarchs of Persia issued, from Susa, edicts which commanded obedience from the shores of the Mediterranean to the remote frontiers of the Penjab in India. Let us take (from the xith section of this volume) a rapid survey of this immense mass of population, divided into twenty Satrapies by Darius Hystaspes, for financial purposes, without attending to their arbitrary enumeration.

In the first Satrapy, ranked the Ionians, who left the barren fields of Attica for the fertile soil and salubrious atmosphere of the coasts of Asia Minor; the Magnesians, a colony from Thessaly; who founded, on the banks of the Meander, the opulent city of Magnesia, 15 miles from Ephesus; the Æolians, retiring from the incroachments of the Ionians, dwelled near the base of Mount Hermus; the Carians, who boasted their descent from Car, brother of Lydus and Mysus, each the founder of a populous empire, exercised the arts of navigation, and were the most dextrous seamen of the age; the Lycians, originally Termiles, a Cretan colony, settled on the banks of the Xanthus; (the Athenian Lycus gave his name to this people;) the Meleyans, originally Solymes, relinquished their coasts to the Cretan adventurers; and the Pamphilians extended eastward to the frontiers of Cilicia. At this period, the tide of emigration seems to have flowed from the west to the east; from Europe to Asia. The whole of this maritime tract paid only 400 silver talents to the Exchequer, but the number of ships which it supplied formed a fourth part of the naval strength of the empire.

The second Satrapy consisted of the Mysians, excluded from the coast by the invasion of the Æolians; and who, with the Lydians and Carians, considered themselves as Aborigines: the Lydians, though sunken from their former splendor, still retained their riches, and the golden sands of Pactolus; the Alysonians, Cabalians, and Hygenians, probably inhabited the country between the southern frontiers of Lydia and the mountains which limit the maritime region. This inland tract contributed 500 silver talents.

The third Satrapy comprehended the Hellespontians; the Phrygians, originally Bryges, had emigrated from the vicinity of Macedonia, and settled in the centre of Asia Minor; a colony of Thracians, from the banks of the Strymon, settled on the Asiatic shores of the Euxine, and gave the name of Bythinia to the country of Bebrycia; the Maryandinians dwelled between the Sangarian gulph and the river Parthenius along the coast of the Euxine; and the Paphlagonians extended from the Parthenius to the Halys. Major Rennell appears to have fallen into a mistake in carrying this Satrapy to the Thermodon; it was bounded (as appears fom Herodotus, Book I. 72.) by the Halys, which separated the Paphlagonians from Syrian Cappadocia. This extensive tract of maritime country paid 360 talents. The Major remarks that, 'of all these nations, the Hellespontians and those of Pontus were the only people who furnished ships:' but Herodotus does not here allude to the country afterward named Pontus, but to the inhabitants of the coasts comprehended in this Satrapy generally.

The province of Cilicia constituted the fourth Satrapy, and extended along the coast of the Mediterranean from the borders of Pamphylia to the city of Posidium, which marked the commencement

mencement of the Phenician territory. The rugged mountains of Taurus formed its northern boundary, but a flat and fertile country extended eastward as far as the Euphrates. The Cilicians were obliged to furnish daily a white horse, and 500 talents of silver annually.

The celebrated countries of Phenicia and Palestine composed the fifth Satrapy. The former extended from Posidium along the coast of the Mediterranean to the termination of Lebanon; which, with the subjacent valley, formed its narrow domains. The superb Tyre stood near its southern extremity. Letters and navigation are the illustrious inventions ascribed to her sons: but they brought these and other arts into Syria, from their former habitations near the Indian ocean. Her commerce and her colonies extended beyond the bounds of Grecian geography.—Palestine stretched thence to Egypt. Jerusalem, which equalled Sardis in size, is named Cadytis by Herodotus; doubtless from the Arabian word Cades, holy. It is styled Beit al Mocades by Mohammedan writers at this day; Ferdousi mentions it as the capital of Yohac, and describes its reduction by Feridûn. This Satrapy paid only 350 talents, but it supplied a third of the Persian navy.

The sixth Satrapy comprehended Egypt; (a recent and rich conquest, which has never since regained its independence;) some bordering tribes of Africans; the province of Cyrene, and its colony, Barca. These paid 700 talents, exclusive of the fishery of the lake Mœris, and of an ample supply of corn.

Babylon and Assyria formed the seventh Satrapy. Major Rennell observes that it extended from the Mediterranean sea to the head of the Persian gulph; and in breadth from Mount Taurus to the Arabian desert: but the first supposition is manifestly inconsistent with the limits assigned by Herodotus to Cilicia and Phenicia, which must have bounded Assyria, or Syria, on the west. It paid 1000 talents of silver, and furnished 500 young eunuchs.

Susiana constituted the eighth Satrapy; a small but rich division, including the winter residence of the Persian monarch. Herodotus calls it Cissia; and the capital, Memnonia, from its founder, the king of the Asiatic Ethiopians.—The antient Susa, according to Mr. Rennell, must be sought in Sus, and not in the modern town of Tuster.—The neighbouring plains produced flowers in great profusion.—This district was taxed at 300 talents.

Ecbatana, and the rest of Media, the Parycanii, and the Orthocorybantes composed the ninth Satrapy. The first was the summer capital of the Persian king, recommended by the cool air from Mount Orontes, crowned with snow, and is represented by the modern Hamadan; Media is recognized in the hilly land of the Persian Irac. The pastoral tribes abovementioned may be faintly traced to the east and southern portions of Media, though the expression of *the rest of Media* seems to exclude their residence within its limits. This Satrapy was assessed at 450 talents.

In the 10th Satrapy are classed the Caspians, who dwelled on the western shores of the Caspian sea, in the province of Ghilan; the Pantimathi, who probably inhabited the southern, or Mazanderan; the Daritæ, whom the author supposes to be the same as the Dahæ, in Dahistan; and the Pausicæ, whose territory extended to the Oxus. This tract is shut on the inland side by a great ridge of mountains, forming a most romantic and beautiful amphitheatre. It contributed only 200 talents.

The Matieni resided on the north-west of Media; the Sapirians separated them from Colchis, and occupied the country watered by the river Araxes, as far as the western bank of the Cyrus and the mountains of Armenia; and the Alarodians were on the frontiers of the Sapirians and of Colchis. They formed an eleventh Satrapy, and were taxed at 200 talents.

From the 12th Satrapy 400 talents were levied; and it comprehended Pactyica, and the Armenians, with the contiguous nations as far as the Euxine:—but where was Pactyica? Herodotus says that it comprehended the city of Caspatyrus, and that city was unquestionably on the Indus. Mr. Rennell (on what foundation we know not) has called the Indian province Pactya, and has placed Pactyica to the west of Ispahan. Since Herodotus has remarked that distant provinces were sometimes united in one Satrapy, why might not Pactyica on the Indus have formed a Satrapy with Armenia? At any rate, Major Rennell should have mentioned his authority for supposing the existence of two tribes of that name.

The 13th Satrapy paid 300 talents, and included the Moschi, who were seated near the sources of the Araxes and the Cyrus; the Tibareni, on the east of the Thermodon, considered mirth and pastime as the felicity of mortals; the Macrones extended from Trebisond to Colchis; the Mosynæci occupied the space between the two last mentioned tribes, the whole stretching along the south-east coast of the Euxine: but the Mardi lived on the mountains which skirt, on the south, the modern province of Mazanderan.

The pastoral tribe of Sagartii hovered on the frontiers of Persia and Carmania; and the polished Sarangeans cultivated the fertile valley of Sistan. Major R. thinks that this valley was conferred on the celebrated Rustum, when Persia was invaded by the Turcomans under Afrasiab: but this is a mistake, as it was originally settled on his grandfather Sâm, and devolved to Rustum on the death of his father Zal, with golden locks; being successively held by this race of heroes. The Thamaneans, Mr. R. cannot place: but we find traces of a tribe named Samani, in the environs of Meru, a situation sufficiently accordant with that which is sought. The Utians and Mencians inhabited the modern provinces of Carmania and Lar. This Satrapy included the islands in the gulph, and was assessed at 600 talents.

The 15th Satrapy was very extensive, and each of its component parts was the future site of a powerful empire. The Parthians, of Scythian origin possessed at this time a circumscribed tract of hilly country on the north of Nysabûr; the Chorasmi still preserve the tract near the mouth of the Oxus, and the name of Khuarezmi; while the Sogdians continue to enjoy the delightful vale of Samarcand, and the country watered and defined by the Sirr and the Oscus. The Arians were the inhabitants of the province of Khorasan; and Herat, its modern capital, is the same as the antient Aria: but we know not where the author has found it spelt without the aspirate. This Satrapy produced only 300 talents.

The next Satrapy consisted of the Sattagydæ, the Gandarii, the Dadycæ, and the Aparytæ, who paid 170 talents. The author places them in and near Margiana: but their situation is the most doubtful of any.

The 17th Satrapy comprehended Bactria, and extended to Eglos: it was taxed at 360 talents. The city of Balkh is unquestionably the antient Bactria; the limits of this government are uncertain, but Major Rennell finds Eglos in its eastern district.

The warlike Sacæ dwelled at Saganian, and near the source of the Oxus; they were associated with the Caspii, (the author reads Cassii,) the people of Casgur, and provided 150 talents.

The Parycani and Ethiopians of Asia formed the 19th Satrapy. The latter have generally been supposed to be the descendants of an Egyptian colony established at Colchis. Mr. Rennell conceives the Parycani to have occupied a part of Gedrosia, (Mecran,) and places these Ethiopians in their vicinity towards the east. They paid 400 talents.

“ The Indians, (says Herodotus,) the most numerous nation of whom we have any knowlege, were proportionally taxed; they formed the 20th Satrapy, and furnished 600 talents in golden ingots.”

The geographical science of Herodotus becomes gradually fainter as he advances eastward; in his description, few traces of Indian manners are discernible; and he accounts for the magnitude of their tribute by supposing that gold was found in their country. The portion of it which Darius possessed probably lay contiguous to the Indus; it might include the country now occupied by the Sikhs, and the present dominions of Zeman Shah Abdalli, exclusive of the province of Casmir.

The inhabitants of Persia proper, of Colchis, and of Arabia, were exempted from taxes. The aggregate amount rose to 7740 Babylonish talents; and our author estimates the whole revenue of the Persian monarch at 3½ millions sterling.

The modern geographer conducts his researches into antiquity with a confidence which the historian cannot boast; the great land-marks established by nature survive the convulsions of civil society; while dynasties of princes are laid low in the dust, empires are overthrown, and the religion and even the language of the inhabitants are totally changed; the mountains continue to rear their lofty heads in the same situations; and the rivers, unconscious of these changes, seek the ocean through their former channels. We are led to this reflection by the apparent accuracy with which Major Rennell has fixed the positions of most of the people mentioned by the first prophane historian; while none has yet ventured, or at least succeeded in an attempt, to reconcile the events mentioned by the same writer, with the historical accounts preserved by the Orientals themselves. Chronology and probability concur to identify the Darius Hystaspes of the Greeks with the Kishtasp of the Persian writers: but the latter represent this prince as succeeding on the throne to his father Lohorasp, without being indebted for his elevation to the neighing of an amorous steed. They represent the country beyond the Oxus as combined into one powerful empire, under a succession of princes, bearing the family name of Afrasiab, and discovering no resemblance to the Scythian hordes mentioned by the Greeks.—A circumstance of a still more peculiar nature is the total silence of Herodotus respecting the great revolution which took place in the reign of Kishtasp, in the religion of Persia. It is manifest that Herodotus had never heard of Zoroaster, who subverted the antient religion of Persia. Agathius and Ctesias place him in the reign of Darius Hystaspes; the Mohammedan historians, in the reign of Kishtasp, who was one of the first converts to his doctrines; the modern Parsis, who adhere to his faith, assign the same period, and represent him as disseminating their tenets by force of arms. He must be sceptical who can resist the united force of these testimonies; and if we yield them our conviction, what opinion shall we form of the accuracy of Herodotus?

While the Greek historians describe the luxurious accommodations enjoyed by the monarchs of Persia in Susa, and Ecbatana; and the Persian writers mention Balkh and Istachar (Bactria and Persepolis) as the residence of their sovereigns; they concur in celebrating the extensive site, the great population, and the magnificent buildings of antient Babylon; which might once be rivalled by the city of Nineveh on the Tygris, at least for extent and population. Their comparative antiquity cannot now be ascertained: but the grandeur of Babylon survived that of its rival; and its dimensions, as stated by all the early writers, are scarcely reconcileable with probability.

'There does not (observes Mr. Rennell, p. 341.) appear to be any way of getting rid of the fact respecting the vastness of the space, inclosed by the wall: nor can it, in our idea, be reduced to less than a square of about 8½ British miles, giving an area of 72 square miles.—But that even 72 contiguous square miles should have been, in any degree covered with buildings, is, on every account, too improbable for belief.—The inhabitants of London, taken at a *ninth* part of the whole population of South Britain (say about 7,000,000, or for London 800,000) require, for their supply of provisions and necessaries, a proportion of land, equal to about 6600 square British miles; on a supposition that they were confined to its produce alone, and that it was taken as it generally runs throughout the kingdom.

'If there be allowed to Babylon an area of 72 miles, we conceive that it would then bear a proportion to the space which the buildings of London occupy, taking in all its suburbs and members, whether *contiguous or otherwise;* and allowing them an area of 15½ British miles, as 9 is to 2 nearly. But as most of the large Asiatic cities that we have seen, or heard of, scarcely contain, within the same space, half the number of inhabitants that European cities do, we must reckon the proportion of population, that Babylon would have contained, to that of London, as 9 to 4. In this case, 15,000 square miles of such land as the common run of that in England, would have been required for the support of the people of Babylon.—But as the simple manner of living among the lower classes of people in Asia, requires a less quantity of land to support it, a considerable deduction may be made, and instead of 15,000 square miles, we may, perhaps, substitute 12,000, Now, it will appear, that this reduced sum of square miles, equals, within $\frac{1}{12}$ part, the whole area of Lower Mesopotamia; and even the whole tract properly denominated Babylonia and Chaldea, including all the arable and pasture land, from whence Babylon could have been conveniently supplied, by the inland navigations, was little more than double the above aggregate, taken at 13,000 square miles. And though it be true, that the quality of the Babylonish lands, in most places, was superior in fertility, to those of England; yet, on the other hand, a prodigious deduction must be made for the marshes and lakes of Lower Mesopotamia and Chaldea.'

The author infers that the houses occupied only a part of the vast space inclosed by the wall; and he furnishes a modern instance in the same region, of a city surrounded by a wall 7 miles in circuit; yet Basora contains only from 40 to 50,000 inhabitants; the wall including date-groves, and corn-fields. It must also be remembered that the Euphrates flowed through the centre of Babylon, and is from 400 to 500 feet wide in that part of its course. In the western division, stood the palace of the Babylonian kings; on the east, the temple of Belus, the square of which was two stadia, and the tower itself one stadium; on which, resting as a base, seven other turrets were built in regular succession; and the summit was crowned by a statue of Belus, 40 feet in height, in an upright posture. The ascent was on the outside, and, winding from the ground, rose to the highest tower. It was situated in the centre of the division; whence probably it has retained the name of Maclub to this day: had that appellation signified ruins, it must have been Maghlûb. The vicinity of Is, the modern Hit, about 128 miles higher up the Euphrates, supplied the bitumen which formed the cement of these buildings.—After a lapse of several centuries from her decline, Babylon might still be compared only with Seleucia; her lofty walls and hanging gardens are proofs of the numbers and the luxury of her inhabitants. At the present period, the traveller who remounts the current of the Euphrates, after having passed Hilla, a considerable town under the Califat, and now containing 10,000 inhabitants, perceives on either bank of the river a wide extent of ruins, which mark the place where once stood the capital of Semiramis; and he recognizes the still inexhausted store of baked bricks which furnished the materials for the future cities of Ctesiphon, Baghdad, and Hilla.

The 15th section of this volume is occupied by an inquiry unconnected with the history of Herodotus. In the reign of Tiglath Pileser, king of Assyria, the kingdom of Samaria was invaded by that prince; and the tribes of Reuben, Gad, and the half tribe of Manasseh, were carried captives into his own country, by the victor. These tribes were placed by the conqueror 'in Halah and in Habor, by the river of Gozan, and in the cities of the Medes.' In a subsequent reign, the remaining ten tribes were also carried off; among whom were Daniel and Tobit: the latter of whom was settled in Rages, which our author supposes to be Rai, a city of Al Gebal, once of considerable splendor, though now in ruins. It may be inferred that the other places mentioned were situated at no great distance; and Major Rennell accordingly finds Hala and Habor in the district of Chalchal and city of Abhar, both watered by the Kizil Ozan, which falls into the Caspian. He alludes to the opinion of some modern writers, that the Afghans are the descendants of the ten tribes of Israel carried into captivity. There is nothing more certain than that, though ashamed of this descent since their conversion to Islamism, the Afghans are at this day divided into ten tribes, distinguished by the name of one of the sons of the patriarch Jacob.

Herodotus, in common with most other writers of antiquity, appears to have excluded Egypt from Africa. From that country, on the east, Africa extended west to the promontory of Soloeis, (supposed by our author to be Cape Cantin,) which terminated the 3d division of the earth. It was inhabited by the different nations of Lybians; the districts alone excepted, which were in possession of the Greeks and Phenicians. The remote parts of Lybia beyond the sea-coast were infested by beasts of prey: but, from the Egyptian Thebes to the columns of Hercules, extended a vast and horrid space, without water, wood, or animals, and totally destitute of moisture. The three regions here described indisputably lay parallel to the Mediterranean: but the knowlege of Africa which Herodotus possessed was not bounded by the limits of the inhospitable Sahara; he had been informed at Cyrene of an attempt made by a party of bold adventurers to penetrate southward across the desert; and that their researches had terminated at a city washed by a great river, which flowed from east to west, and abounded in crocodiles. The inhabitants were black, and of diminutive stature. The true course of the Niger, thus described by Herodotus, was known to Europeans only since the discoveries of Mr. Park. It is true that the former, conceiving it to be the Nile, leads it afterward into Egypt: but this mistake will excite little surprise, when it is considered that the sources of the principal branch of the Egyptian river are unknown at this day. That which was visited and described by Mr. Bruce rolls a smaller body of water, and runs a shorter course than the Nehr al Abiad: but it must be observed that the former retains the name of the Nile, from its source to its confluence with the Mediterranean.

'The knowledge of Herodotus, respecting the detail of the interior parts of Africa extended only to the upper course of the Nile, southward; and on the south-west, to the Niger. And, although he knew the fact, simply, that Africa was surrounded by the ocean, yet he seems to have known no particulars relating to the coasts, beyond the places to which the Carthaginians traded on the west side, perhaps to the neighbourhood of Sierra Leona; nor on the east, beyond the Macrobian Ethiopians, (the Abyssinians,) who appear to have extended to the ocean, beyond the outlet of the Arabian gulph.'

The breadth of the isthmus of Suez has been hitherto over-rated. Mr. Rennell gives the exact distance from Pelusium (Tinah) to Arsinoe (Suez) at 56 British miles. The existence of a navigable communication between the Nile and the Red Sea, notwithstanding the works ascribed to Necho, to Sesostris, to Ptolemy, and to Trajan, is still involved in considerable doubt. The Mohammedan historian asserts the construction of a canal in the reign of the Caliph Omar: but that it continued navigable only a short time must at any rate be admitted. Traces of its course are still described by modern travellers: but, had its utility equalled the expectations of its projectors, such repeated attempts would scarcely have been rendered so soon abortive. The gradual retrocession of the Red Sea is proved by its actual distance of a mile and a half from the former port of Khulzûm. The Pelusiac branch of the Nile only exists as a periodical stream running over a different bed; while the city of Bubastis, famed for the numbers and superstition of its inhabitants, is faintly traced in the modern village of Bastus, 17 miles N.W. of Belhesa.

In the 18th and 19th sections, the author remarks on the changes, in respect of form and extent, that have happened to the Delta of Egypt, since the early times of history; together with the probable cause of those changes; and he inquires into the position occupied by the city of Memphis, and the change of the course of the Nile, in its neighbourhood.

'Considering (says the Major,) the extreme flatness of the Delta; the quality of its soil, which is totally different from that of the adjacent countries; its form, which projects so far into the sea, beyond the general line of the coast, on the one hand; and on the other, filling up a space, which, reasoning from appearances, looks like a bay, or gulph of the sea; one can hardly doubt that the space which it occupies, was originally a part of the sea, from the neighbourhood of Pelusium, or of Mount Casius, to that of Alexandria; and southward to the foot of the hills of the Pyramids, and of Mokattam; which is yet allowing little more for the depth of the bay, from the supposed line of the coast, than the lower point of the Delta now advances beyond it. No doubt, when we carry back our ideas to the time when the sea washed the base of the rock, on which the pyramids of Memphis stand, the present base of which is washed by the inundation of the Nile, at an elevation, most probably of 70 or 80 feet, above the surface of the same sea; we are lost in the contemplation of the vast interval of time, that must necessarily have elapsed since the foundation of the Delta was first laid.'

In the natural progress of alluvion, the depositions acquire a mass capable of separating the parent river into different channels, by an apex: while, the sides spreading wider as they recede from this point, the newly emerged land assumes a tria-

ngular form. Its base gradually enlarges by new deposi-
is; the mass, as it acquires a firmer consistence, confines
river to fewer channels; and the apex of the Delta
nges its position by receding farther from the source. Thus,
author states grounds for supposing that the apex of the
lta of Egypt was once situated to the southward of the site
Memphis; and he produces less equivocal testimony of a
inge of position towards the north, in times posterior to that
tant and doubtful æra. The site of the centre of antient
mphis is placed by Mr. Rennell in 29° 53′.

The Nile is represented by antient writers as emptying itself
o the sea by seven mouths. 1st, The Canopic, the most
stern, washed at its confluence the site of Canopus, the
nains of which are still seen in the vicinity of Abûkir;
ucratis, the sole emporium of the empire, stood on its
nks, and is recognized by our author in the modern Sal-
ar; while Rahmani represents the antient Hermopolis.
is branch has gradually forsaken its bed, and occupies the
lbitine channel, which was originally an artificial one. 'By
s change, the Delta has been abridged, as has been observed
ore, about 18 miles of the western part of its base; and
ich is become as barren a desert as the adjoining one of
bia.' 2d, The Bolbitine has now become the most con-
erable mouth of the Nile, the Phatmetic excepted; it
ws by Rosetta, 16 miles distant from the Canopic.
, The Sebennitic is now of little importance, and discharges
elf into lake Brulos, about 30 miles to the east of the
lbitine. 4th, The Phatmetic is now the principal channel
the Nile; it flows past Damietta, at the distance of about
miles from the Sebennitic. 5th and 6th, The Mendesian
l Tanitic are now only outlets to the lake Menzala.
, The Pelusiac is now only a periodical stream, and pro-
ly always inferior to the Phatmetic and Canopic branches.
e lakes which skirt the coast of Egypt may be regarded as
tions of the sea not yet filled up, but gradually undergoing
t operation, which is more observable in the western than in
eastern division. The lake Mareotis is nearly on a level
h the country, covered with herbage, and produces some
m-trees. The tradition of Homer that the island of Pharos,
early times, lay at the distance of a day's sail from the
uth of the Nile, may (in our author's opinion) be explained
the slow but uninterrupted progress of the above process:
with these supposed operations of nature, the limited
ation assigned to the world in the sacred books of Moses is
reconcileable. If the sea washed the rock on which the
pyramids

pyramids stand, it must have been at a period extremely anterior to the building of Memphis by Menes; since the gradual depositions of the river had even then produced the Delta. Yet Menes must have lived only a few centuries subsequent to the flood.—A physical objection occurs, of still greater weight. There was a time when the rock of the pyramids was nearly on a level with the sea; it is now 80 feet above that level, not by the retrocession of that element, but by the accession of height gained by the land in consequence of the depositions of the Nile;—such is the opinion of Major Rennell. We shall suppose that, when the city of Memphis and the pyramids were founded, the site was 40 feet above the level of the sea; in this case, Memphis, the pyramids, and of course many of the cities of antient Egypt, would now be 40 feet under ground; a supposition not warranted by fact.

In the midst of the arid deserts of Lybia, are found interspersed small tracts of fertile land, covered with luxuriant herbage, shaded by trees yielding delicious fruits, and refreshed by rivulets of pure water gushing from perennial fountains. The contrast with the surrounding waste heightens the charms of these delightful spots, and procured for them the title of the "Happy Isles." The Greeks distinguished them by the name of Oases, which Mr. Rennell derives from the Arabic word "Wah;" whence, he says, the district in which they are found is denominated "Al Wahat." We have never met with this Arabic word; "Wahed" signifies solitary, unique; "Aluvi" bears the same meaning; "Wadi" is an extensive valley: but with *Wah* we are unacquainted. The author's explanation of Arabic terms is not always happy; thus, he tells us that "Bahir" signifies a lake: but its real meaning is *the sea*.

Major Rennell observes that Mr. Browne describes the Greater Oasis as consisting of large detached spots; or a number of islands extending in a line, (from south to north, at the distance of about 75 or eighty miles from Egypt,) separated by intervals of desert. Probably the Lesser Oasis may be of the same nature; as the same mountains that impend over the greater one are known to continue northward: *i.e.* in the same direction with the Lesser Oasis. Bahnasa may be in one of the spots, and the most northerly of all; the southernmost spot may lie within 40 miles of the northernmost of those of the Greater Oasis; and the two, collectively, may form, in effect, one long chain. Finally, the interval of 40 miles, by being very much greater than the intervals between the other islands, may occasion the division into greater and lesser Oasis; each consisting of a number of islands separated by narrow deserts. According to Mr. Browne, the greatest interval between the islands of the Greater Oasis is about 28 G. miles. No idea is given any where of the breadth of the islands: but it is probably small.

West from the most northerly of the abovementioned islands, and at the distance of 125 miles from the sea coast, lies a small Oasis, about 6 miles long and 5 wide, containing the town of Sieva, in lat. 29° 12′, and long. 26° 21′ 30″. It appears to have been named Santariah by the Arabian geographers. 'The description afforded by Mr. Browne renders it extremely probable that, in this sequestered site, he has discovered the station of the temple of Jupiter Ammon. The geographical positions concur as nearly as they could be expected to agree; the similarity of productions, of form, and of dimensions, leads to the same conclusion; and the fountain still noted for varying in its temperature seems, in a great measure, to exclude all doubt of the fact. Mr. Rennell adduces an additional proof in the similarity of the architecture, which may yet be traced in the ruins of a temple at Sieva, to the Egyptian style of building and ornamenting edifices consecrated to religion. ' As Mr. Horneman (who is employed by the African Association) was to proceed from Egypt to Fezzan, with the caravan, his route would naturally lie through Sieva. Probably some new lights may be afforded by him.' A letter from that gentleman, dated 19th August 1799, observes that " Sievah is without doubt the country of the antient Ammonians. I found some ruins, and a great number of catacombs there. Of one part of the ruins there are only the foundation walls to be seen. Another part consists of the foundation walls of a large building, within which, and near the middle of it, are seen the ruins of a remarkable edifice. It stands on an eminence composed of limestone. I should take these ruins for those of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, if the description of it in Herodotus was not so unlike what I saw." We cannot recollect any description of the temple in question by Herodotus; who merely says that it had, as at Thebes, a statue of Jupiter with a ram's head.

(Sect. XXII.) From the Lesser Catabathmon to the frontiers of Carthage, the shores of the Mediterranean were inhabited by a variety of pastoral tribes; excepting where the Grecian colonists of Cyrene occupied an elevated promontory, nearly opposite to their first habitations in Laconia. The Adyrmachidæ bordered on Egypt, and imitated its customs; the

Gilligammæ extended to Cyrenaica, which then contained only 120 miles of sea coast, at the entrance of the Greater Syrtis. The garden of Hesperides was situated at Berenice, (now Bernice;) and a wood still marks its position, in a country destitute of trees*. South and east of the Syrtis, extended the sandy plains inhabited by the Nasamones; they included Augila, which has retained its name from the time of Herodotus, and supplied its pastoral inhabitants with abundance of dates. South of the Nasamones dwelled the Garamantes; whom the present author, with great probability, recognizes in the people of Fezzan. Their geographical position, the antient capital of Germa, and the mention by Pliny of a country of Phazania in this vicinity, render the conjecture plausible; though the timid and unsocial Garamantes have become, in modern times, the most enterprising merchants of Africa. This part constitutes an Oasis, midway between Tunis and Egypt, and affords the shortest communication between the Mediterranean and the centre of Africa; between Western Africa, Egypt, and Arabia.—To return to the sea-coast: The Macæ extended beyond the Cynips, formerly bordered with woods, to the site of modern Tripoli; various tribes of Lotophagi reached to the lesser Syrtis and the lake Tritonis (now Lowdeah). The Rhamnus Lotus, which is now agreed to be the fruit on which these people subsisted, is said still to abound in the environs of the lesser Syrtis. The Ausenses were the last Nomadic tribe, and bordered on the Zygantes, who cultivated the southern frontiers of the Carthaginian territory. Beds and mountains of fossil salt occasionally mark the edges of the desert; which shuts up, on the south, the whole of the countries just described.

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* We discover some perplexity respecting the Philenian altars. Our author places them south of the Greater Syrtis; he remarks that the Carthaginian boundary probably did not extend so far east in the age of Herodotus, and then adds that in the age of Scylax their territory extended from the Greater Syrtis to the columns of Hercules: but Scylax lived before Herodotus.—Had Sallust been more particular, his authority would have been decisive of their position, because he had resided in that country, of which he was prætor. In his description of the coast of Africa, he says, "Igitur ad Catabathmon, qui locus Egyptum ab Africa dividit, secundo mari, prima Cyrene est, colonia Thereon, ac deinceps duæ Syrtes, interque eas Leptis: deis Philenon aræ, quem, Egyptum versus, finem imperii habuere Carthaginienses: post aliæ Punicæ urbes." Hence we should have looked for the altars to the west of Leptis. In speaking of the Cyrenaic deputies, he merely says that they were somewhat later (aliquanto posteriores) than those of Carthage.

The irregular tides and shifting sands of the Greater and Less Syrtis were the terror of the antient mariners; 'most of the dangers must probably have risen from the difficulty of working off a lee shore; for which purpose the antient ships were very ill calculated.' The lake Lowdeah, to which Dr. Shaw allows an extent of 20 leagues, and 6 in breadth, must be considered as the Tritonis of Herodotus: it is singular that Pliny and Lucan should have placed it inland from the Greater, instead of the Less Syrtis. Speaking of the temple of Minerva, (situated on this lake,) in which the vest of the image was made of skin, and the fringe hanging from the ægis not composed of serpents but of leather, the author takes occasion to remark the antiquity of the art of dressing skins in Africa. The covering of the tabernacle in the wilderness, he observes, was of rams' skins dyed red; and he deems it a curious fact that the shrine of Minerva, at the lake Tritonis, should have been decorated not only with the same kind of manufacture, but that it was also of the same colour.

The circumnavigation of Africa by vessels conducted by Phenicians in the reign of Necho, King of Egypt, is considered in the 24th and 25th sections. The reality of this voyage has been much questioned; partly from the difficulties attending it previously to the use of the mariner's compass; and partly from the circumstance being unknown or disbelieved by Polybius, (himself a discoverer,) and by Ptolemy, whose situation was favourable for obtaining all the knowlege possessed by the Egyptians respecting the immediate subject of his researches. On the other hand, the circumstance disbelieved by Herodotus, that of the Phenicians having the sun on their right hand, which must have happened after having passed the line, is strongly corroborative of the authenticity of the relation. In a coasting voyage, however long, the compass is not indispensible; a regular trade was carried on from the Red Sea to the coasts of India, and the whole voyage was performed at a distance from land. With the exception of Ptolemy, the antient writers seem pretty generally to have regarded Africa as a peninsula; which belief must have originated in some knowlege of the fact procured from a complete circumnavigation, or so complete as to warrant the inference of a peninsular form. 'The date of this first circumnavigation of Africa may be supposed to be about 600 years before our æra; 175 before Herodotus wrote; and perhaps about 400 after the voyages made by the fleets of Solomon and Hiram.'

Our account of this volume has already extended to a length scarcely compatible with the limits of our work; and we regret the necessity of omitting the curious and entertaining

ing particulars afforded by the author, respecting the various currents experienced in the Atlantic.

The voyage of Hanno is elucidated by Major Rennell in his last section. The streams of fire which seemed to run down the hills, and the savage women found on the coast, have been satisfactorily explained by modern travellers, whose remarks have contributed to establish the veracity of the Carthaginian navigator. In ascertaining his positions, the existence of a strong southerly current must not be forgotten, as it materially affected his calculations of distance. In the island of Cerne, may be recognized the modern Arguin. In the prosecution of the voyage to the Southern Horn, (which the author places at Sherbro' Sound, or Bay,) he passed a mountain, which, from its height, and the fires which ascended its side, was named the Chariot of the Gods; this Major Rennell refers to Mount Sagres; though its height appears somewhat exaggerated. Sherbro' Bay, or Sierra Leona, is considered as the extreme limits of the Carthaginian discoveries.

The work to which we have so long drawn the attention of our readers is entirely worthy of its author's justly extensive reputation for geographical knowlege. It will be found to elucidate the positions of many important places, the names of which occur in antient writers; and to exhibit, in their utmost latitude, the boundaries of the universe, as they appeared to the father of Grecian history: together with their divisions and subdivisions. The necessity, however, of collating all that has been said on certain subjects, by different authors, is occasionally productive of some tedium; and Major Rennell has still to learn the useful art of contracting the exuberance of a style naturally diffuse. "*Quam paucissumis absolvi*" was the boast of the writers of antiquity; modern authors too frequently aim at the reverse.

ART. II. *The Costume of China*, illustrated by Sixty Engravings, with Explanations in French and English. By George Henry Mason, Esq. Major of his Majesty's (late) 102d Regiment. Royal Quarto. 6 Guineas, Boards. Miller. 1800.

OF the immense empire of China, containing (as it is said) a population of upwards of three hundred millions, comparatively little is known. Among the virtues of this people, hospitality to strangers is not to be enumerated; and they are so very suspicious of the eye of intrusion, that the knowlege which Europeans have of their customs and manners has been "snatched" rather than "taken." The author of the present splendid and expensive publication informs us of the hazards which he incurred, and of the insults which he encountered, in attempting, with a party of English, on the 24th of December 1789, to take a view of the city of Canton.

'They agreed (he tells us) with an old Chinese soldier for a view of the city of Canton;—to afford which, he pretended he would conduct them to the top of a considerable eminence that is near the walls of the city, and commands it. Having suffered the customary verbal abuse from boys and from the common rabble, in their way through the suburb streets, and being attended by a vast multitude, on their arrival at the foot of the hill they were disappointed by their guide refusing to proceed. This produced some strong remonstrances, during which one of the gentlemen slipped through the surrounding crowd, and began to ascend the hill; he was arrested near the summit by two stout natives; two of the party attempting to follow him were intercepted immediately, and a detachment of Tartar soldiers, rushing from a sally-port, carried the first offender within the walls of the city. The remaining gentlemen then used all their rhetoric of signs (for the language of either side was perfectly unintelligible to the other,) to obtain a release of the prisoner, or even to be permitted to accompany him, but without effect: a rescue was equally impracticable, and they were compelled into a precipitate retreat amidst the shouts and scurrilities of thousands. It was several hours before the gentleman was released, and then at the intercession of the Hong merchants* with the executive power. His treatment had been better than he expected, since, with the exception of their repeatedly attempting to snatch his watch, and regarding him with ignorant curiosity, he got home to the factory without further molestation.'

Major Mason appears to have been in China only a few months; during which, as the anecdote above transcribed will indicate, he had no singular opportunity of exploring this wonderful people; and the work here offered to the public, as it chiefly respects their exterior, might have been furnished by a very superficial acquaintance with them. We find, however, that he partook of several entertainments given by the Hong merchants at their own houses; 'from which advantages, with the aid of some donations, unwearied diligence, and frequent exertions of patience, he obtained no inconsiderable knowlege of the Chinese customs.'—He describes the Chinese collectively as ingenious in their peaceful arts, polished and courteous in their manners, moral and gacious in their civil institutes, just and politic in their enal laws, and in want of nothing but the blessing of revealed igion to render them the happiest people in the universe.

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* A company of Chinese merchants, by whom all the immense merce of Canton is regulated.

The plates here given, which are beautifully coloured, are copied from correct drawings, *made by Chinese artists*, representing the different habits and occupations of their countrymen; which the editor procured, he tells us, for the better information of his friends in Europe; and which, at their solicitation, are taken out of his port-folio for the gratification and instruction of the public. They consist of

1. A Mandarin of Distinction in his Habit of Ceremony.
2. A Watchman.
3. A Woman making Stockings.
4. A Money-changer.
5. A Barber.
6. A Bookseller.
7. A Frog-catcher.
8. A Pork-butcher.
9. A Bonzee begging Alms.
10. A Man with a Raree-shew.
11. A Chinese Woman.
12. A Pipe-seller.
13. A Tambouriner.
14. A Beggar with a Dog.
15. An Arrow-maker.
16. A Porter with Fruit-trees and Flowers.
17. A Pedlar.
18. A Shoemaker.
19. A Blacksmith.
20. A Lantern-painter.
21. A Woman preparing Tea.
22. A Beggar with a Serpent.
23. A Traveller.
24. A Distiller.
25. A Fisherman.
26. An Apothecary.
27. A Labourer.
28. A Mender of Porcelaine.
29. A Bricklayer.
30. A Carpenter.
31. A Mandarin in his Summer Dress.
32. A Stone-hewer.
33. A Pillow-seller.
34. A Flute-seller.
35. A Ballancer.
36. A Man striking a small Gong during an Eclipse.
37. A Tinker.
38. A Puppet-shew.
39. A Fishmonger.
40. A Beggar with a Monkey.
41. A Woman embroidering.
42. A Porter with Fire-wood.
43. A Furrier.
44. A Serpent-catcher.
45. A Miller.
46. A Viper-seller.
47. A Shoemaker.
48. A Cotton-clearer.
49. A Basket-weaver.
50. A Fisherman with a Scoop.
51. A Cap-maker.
52. A Female Peasant.
53. A Canister-maker.
54. A Boy with Vegetables.
55. An old Man polishing Crystals.
56. A Boschee*.
57. An old Woman twisting Cotton.
58. A Soldier.
59. A lame Beggar.
60. A Lady of Distinction in her Habit of Ceremony.

We have copied this enumeration not so much with the view of exhibiting the contents of this work, as for the sake of imparting to the reader an idea of the various trades and professions (which are mostly ambulant) existing among this wonderful people. The value of the engravings is augmented by the subjoined explanations, though in general they are shorter than we could have wished. As specimens of the merit of this part of the work, we shall extract various articles; beginning with the explanation accompanying the first plate, representing *a Mandarin of Distinction.*

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* A man who precedes and clears the way for a Mandarin of Distinction, when he goes abroad.

'The dress of a Chinese is suited to the gravity of his demeanour. It consists, in general, of a long vest extending to the ankle: the sleeves are wide at the shoulder, are gradually narrower at the wrist, and are rounded off in the form of a horse-shoe, covering the whole hand when it is not lifted up. No man of rank is allowed to appear in public without boots, which have no heels, and are made of satin, silk, or calico. In full dress he wears a long silk gown, generally of a blue colour, and heavily embroidered; over this is placed a sur-coat of silk, which reaches to the hand, and descends below the knee. From his neck is suspended a string of costly coral beads. His cap is edged with satin, velvet, or fur, and on the crown is a red ball with a peacock's feather hanging from it. These are badges of distinction conferred by the Emperor. The embroiderd bird on the breast is worn only by Mandarins high in civil rank, while the military Mandarins are distinguished by an embroidered dragon. All colours are not suffered to be worn indiscriminately. The Emperor and the princes of the blood only are allowed to wear yellow; although violet colour is sometimes chosen by the Mandarins of rank on days of ceremony. The common people seldom wear any other than blue or black, and white is universally adopted for mourning.

'In their dispositions the Chinese are mild and humane, carefully avoiding every word or gesture which may betray either anger or any violent emotion of the mind. They entertain the highest reverence for their parents, and respect for the aged. They are enthusiastic admirers of virtue, and venerate the memory of such of their nation as have been celebrated for a love of justice and of their country. With this singular people, neither riches nor birth can ever establish the smallest claim to honours. Personal merit is the sole basis upon which any man can raise himself to distinguished rank. Talents and virtue are indispensably requisite for those in power; and where they are deficient, every adventitious or hereditary pretension is totally disallowed.'

As connected with literature, we shall now copy the account of the *Chinese Bookseller:* one of the most copious articles:

'The Chinese have practised the art of printing from time immemorial; but they use no press as the Europeans do. They carve their letters upon blocks of wood; and their paper, being very thin and transparent, will bear printing only on one side: hence every leaf is doubled, the fold being at the edge. They cover their books with a neat sort of pasteboard, of a grey colour; or else with fine satin, or flowered silk. Some are bound with red brocade, interspersed with gold and silver flowers: a manner of binding extremely neat and ornamental. Their books are lettered upon the cover.

'The common people have ballads and songs, inculcating chiefly the rules of civility, the relative duties of life, and maxims of morality.

The Chinese novels are amusing and instructive; they enliven the imagination without corrupting the heart, and are replete with axioms which tend to the reformation of manners by a powerful recommendation of the practice of virtue. Conscious that the political existence of a government depends on the proper regulation of the impulses of nature, the severest penalties are denounced by the Chinese code of laws against all publications unfriendly to decency and good order: the purchasers of them are held in detestation by the greater part of the community; and, with the publishers, are alike obnoxious to the laws, which no rank or station, however exalted, can violate with impunity. The greatest encouragement is given by this extraordinary people to the cultivation of letters. The literati rank above the military, are eligible to the highest stations, and receive the most profound homage from all ranks.

'The Chinese has no resemblance to any other dead or living language: all others have an alphabet, the letters of which, by their various combinations, form syllables and words; whereas this has no alphabet, but as many characters and different figures as there are words and changes.

'Some of the Chinese paper is made of cotton, some of hemp; other sorts are of the bamboo, of the mulberry, or of the arbutus, which latter is most in use. The inner rind, being reduced by maceration and pounding to a fluid paste, is then placed in frame moulds, and the sheets are completed by drying in a sort of stove.

'The ink, commonly called "Indian ink," is made of lamp-black, beat up in a mortar with musk, and a thin size. When brought to the consistence of paste, it is put into small moulds, stamping upon the ink what characters or figures are wanted; and it is then dried in the sun or air.

'The Chinese do not use pens, but pencils made with hair, particularly with that of the rabbit. When they write, they have upon their table a small piece of polished marble, with an hollow at one end to contain water; into this they dip their stick of ink, and rub it upon the smooth part, leaning more or less heavily, to proportion the blackness. When they write, they hold the pencil perpendicularly. They write in columns, from the top of the paper to the bottom, commencing on the right-hand side of the margin, and end their books where Europeans begin theirs, whose last page is with them the first.

'The paper, ink, pencil, and marble, are called "*Pau-tsee*," or, "*The four precious things.*"

Among the artifices practised by beggars in China, to attract attention and excite compassion, we find a plate and description of *a Beggar with a Dog*, 'which is taught to tread on the end of a light board, that, acting as a lever, raises a stone fastened to the opposite end. This stone then falls into a small wooden cup, and thus affords, in miniature, a representation of the mode of beating out rice from the husk. The man receives his alms in a wicker-dish.' The mendicants here also adopt a practice followed by other Asiatics, of taming and exhibiting tricks with live serpents. In a plate here inserted, is represented one of these miserable wretches, 'who carries a live serpent coiled round his neck; the greater part of which he will, for a very small reward, cram, head foremost, into his mouth, allowing any person present to draw it out by the tail. The editor affirms, from his personal knowlege, that this mode of begging, however extraordinary, is practised without the smallest trick or deception.'

In the description of the plate representing *a Woman preparing Tea,* we are told that;

> 'Tea (tchà) is always presented to a visitor in China, at whatever time of day he may arrive. It is served in porcelain cups with covers, and possesses, in its native clime, a peculiarly fine flavour and scent. It is never drank hot*, neither does a Chinese ever mix it with cream or sugar.
>
> 'There is a sort of tea named Pou-Yùl-Tchà, from its being cultivated near the village of Pou-Yùl, in the province of Yun-Nàn. The leaves of this are longer and thicker than the other sorts, and are rolled up with a viscous liquid into a kind of ball, and dried in the sun. This sort bears a good price among the natives; they cut the balls into pieces, and pour boiling water upon them. This tea is not of a very pleasant taste, but it is esteemed very wholesome. Two of its attributed virtues are the curing of the cholic, and the creating an appetite; but perhaps the essential virtues of tea consist in its being an innocent, refreshing beverage, which quenches thirst; and that, supplying the place of inflammatory liquors, the laborious Chinese porter relishes it equally with the most delicate European lady.'

The practice of physic, at least in its subordinate relations, seems to be carried on in rather a peculiar manner, according to the following description of *an Apothecary:*

> 'Itinerant apothecaries, and venders of drugs, are very numerous in China, who are occasionally either surgeons or physicians, and whose ignorance of prime causes is attended with the same mischievous effects as that of similar practitioners in Europe. The Chinese pretend to discover every disorder by the beat of the pulse, which their physicians feel in various parts of the body. They have much faith in the use of simples, which they recommend as specifics in most disorders. Their druggists have great shops furnished with medicines, and there are fairs where nothing but simples and remedies are sold.—In China, every body is allowed to practise physic: this privilege, whether granted or connived at by the government, multiplies quacks, of whom the vulgar entertain a very high opinion, and suffer accordingly. It is related, that great sagacity is displayed

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* This practice, so different from the European mode, seems to merit our consideration. It is perhaps the *hot water* which produces the nervous debility attributed by us to tea.—The Chinese, on the contrary, drinks all his *wine* very *hot.*

by the Chinese in discovering whether a person has died a natural death, or in consequence of some violence, and this even after the body has begun to corrupt. The corps is taken out of the grave, and washed in vinegar. After this, a large fire is kindled in a pit dug on purpose, six feet long, three wide, and the same in depth; this fire is continually augmented, until the surrounding earth becomes as hot as an oven. The remaining fire is then taken from the pit, a large quantity of their wine is poured into it, and it is covered with a hurdle made of osier twigs, upon which the body is stretched out at full length. A cloth is thrown over all, in the form of an arch, in order that the steam may act on it in every direction. At the expiration of two hours this cloth is taken off; and, it is asserted, that if any blows have been given, they will appear upon the body, in whatever state it may be. The same experiment is extended even to bones stripped of their flesh; the Chinese assuring us, that if the blows have been so severe as to occasion death, this process causes the marks to appear upon the bones, although none of them may be broken or visibly injured.'

The practice of exhibiting the costume or dresses of different nations is far from being new. We have a book printed at Venice two hundred years ago, intitled, *Habiti Antichi et Moderni di tutto il Mondo. Di Cesare Vecellio: in Venetia* M.D.XCVIII. containing, in a multitude of wooden cuts, the dresses of all nations, with annexed explanations in Latin and Italian; and, since that time, many similar publications have issued from the press. Of late, works of this description have assumed singular elegance; and we do not believe that any are superior to that which is now before us. Indeed, for six guineas, the eye of taste and curiosity has a right to expect the gratification which it will here find.

ART. III. *An Account of the regular Gradation in Man*, and in different Animals and Vegetables; and from the former to the latter. By Charles White. 4to. pp. 146. 10s. 6d. Boards. Dilly. 1799.

WE opened this volume with the expectation of finding some light thrown on a very curious subject of inquiry, but we have been greatly disappointed in the execution of the work. It consists chiefly of well-known passages, selected from books which are in the hands of every lover of natural history; and we are sorry to say that the author has been very unsuccessful in his attempts to add to the general stock of knowlege. Much of the preliminary matter relates, indeed, to a subject which no one will now contest with Mr. White. The distinction of natural objects into the three great classes of animals, vegetables, and minerals, is allowed to be arbitrary; and to be only a convenient arrangement for the purposes of perspicuity and celerity, in conversation or writing:—but, when the author proposes to ascertain a *gradation* in those objects, we think that he misunderstands his own term. Gradation implies not only an approximation by similarity of appearances, or properties, but an approximation by equal degrees; yet Mr. White owns that 'the gradation from man to animals is not by one way, the person and actions descend to the orang outang, but the voice to birds.' (p. 39.) This is a descent *per saltum*, not by equal degrees; and here is an end, at once, of the object professed by the author in his title-page: since he there expressly mentions *regular* gradation; a phrase which we consider indeed as a pleonasm, but which places his meaning beyond all doubt. The first step, then, of this *regular gradation* below man is, according to Mr. White, a most irregular dispersion of the human qualities; for the voice certainly does not descend to *all* birds, nor to the largest and most perfect birds; and whoever would trace a gradation from man to the parrot must consult some other authority than the book before us.

Notwithstanding this unlucky stumble at the threshold, we still hoped to meet with some new information respecting the varieties of the human species, at least; and we read the chapters on this subject with particular attention. Mr. White supposes that he has discovered some circumstances which discriminate the African from the European, and which approximate him to quadrupeds. We shall omit the consideration of the long details which he has borrowed from Professor Camper and others, and shall confine ourselves to his own remarks; because the opinions which he has quoted have already undergone the decision of the public.

That the African 'seems to approach nearer to the brute creation, than any other of the human species,' is Mr. White's assumption; it remains to be seen by what proofs, drawn from personal observation, he has endeavoured to establish it. The foundation of his opinion was laid in the measurement of a single skeleton of a negro, in his possession: but this is a commencement of ill omen. The radius and ulna of this skeleton, he found 'to be an inch longer than in the European skeleton of the same stature;' from which mode of expression, it would seem that Mr. W. had merely compared a single skeleton of one nation, with a single skeleton of another; and from so slight a view, no solid conclusion would be formed by any person of a philosophic mind. Yet this seems to have been the basis of the author's theory. He tells us, indeed, that he afterward measured the arms of about fifty negroes, and, comparing them with those of several Europeans, found the fore-arms of the Africans longer: but he adds that he is 'informed of a negro skeleton in St. Bartholomew's Hospital, in which the radius and ulna are no longer than the medium of Europeans: *but as Africans, as well as Europeans, are liable to some variation in this particular, one or two exceptions have no force against the general inference.*' The latter part of this paragraph contains a complete refutation of the author's own theory. Professor Blumenbach, who has examined a great variety of human skeletons, asserts that every perfection attributed to the form of the European is to be found in that of the African. Mr. White may have met with deformed negroes, or with those who have been injured by hardships and poverty: but it appears to be as unjust to decide on the structure of a numerous nation from a few unfortunate specimens, as it would be to ascribe the form and qualities of the *Cretins* to all the inhabitants of the country in which they appear. Even on the coast of Guinea, considerable differences in the form and spirit of different nations are discoverable. Has Mr. White ever measured a Cormantin negro?

From these very scanty materials, the author proceeds to several general conclusions respecting the diversity of 'cartilages, muscles, tendons, skin, hair,' &c. between the negro and the European: but, though he undertakes to *shew* this variation, he admits that, with regard to the first three subjects, 'we are not in possession of a sufficient number of comparative anatomical facts to allow us to state much.' The same observation may be applied to the remaining points of supposed difference.

Respecting one instance of gradation, the state of the *clitoris* and *nymphæ* in African women, which the author has asserted, without any positive knowlege, we refer him and the reader to a chapter in *Sonnini's Travels*; which clears up the mistake long supported by former travellers, and adopted from them by Mr. White.

In treating of the *speech* and *language*, (which the author has thought proper to distinguish; we do not know why;) Mr. W. has unfairly applied the observations of travellers on the language of the Hottentots, to negroes in general. It would be equally improper to assert that we possess no good books on natural history, because a few bad writers have sometimes exposed themselves by attempting to compose works of that nature, without a competent knowlege of the subject. In p. 69, we are presented with an account of 'the manner in which the human voice and speech *is*[*] effected,' because, we are told, 'it is not to be met with every where:' neither, indeed,

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[*] This is only one of several grammatical errors which we have observed.

deed, are the principles of spherical trigonometry, nor the art of dialling, 'to be met with *every where.*' We can direct our readers to a much more copious and satisfactory account of the formation of the letters in speaking, than they will obtain from Mr. White; we mean, the grammarian's lecture, in Moliere's *Bourgeois Gentilhomme*; or that of Mr. *Gruel*, in Foote's Commissary.

After having gone through this unsatisfactory detail, we find the author concluding, p. 83, that there is a *pretty regular gradation* from the European to the tribe of Simiæ. This is almost a *retreat* from the promised demonstration of a regular descent: but we must not confine the author too closely to his terms; for at p. 85, the descending gradation becomes retrograde, and we are again at a loss for his meaning; he thus expresses himself:

> '6. That, in comparing the classes of mankind with each other, and with the brute creation, as in the second article,' [just quoted from p. 83.] 'there is a gradation also discoverable in the senses of seeing, hearing, and smelling, in memory, and in the powers of mastication, *but in a contrary order to that above stated, the European being least perfect, the African more so, and the brutes most perfect of all, in these particulars.*'

While we were puzzling ourselves to discover what could be the nature of a gradation which is *regular* on the face of the book, which is unequally divergent in p. 39, which becomes only *pretty regular* in p. 83, and which is *reversed* in p. 85, and must be traced backwards, like a witch's prayer; we turned again to the Preface for information, and there we found the following passage:

> 'The student must not, however, expect to find an uniform gradation in all the faculties and powers of different subjects; it frequently happens that an inferiority in one particular, is accompanied by a superiority in some other particular; so that the ascent or descent is *not always by equal, but often by irregular steps.*'

Where, then, is the alleged regularity of gradation? It is evident that there must be some mistake in this matter; and that the author should either have provided a new title-page for his book, or a new book for his title-page.

As Mr. White has so completely failed in establishing his avowed object, the remaining sections of his book become little interesting. They contain, indeed, nothing that is either new or important.——Some fragments, translated from a paper by Dr. Soemmering, are added; in which one of the paragraphs amounts to a reply, by anticipation, to Mr. White's book.

If we have spoken of this work with apparent severity, we rely not only on the justice of our remarks, but we must add that an attempt to destroy the barrier between any set of human beings, however degraded, and the inferior animals, can serve no good purpose, either in politics or in morals; and the author's protest against the application of his doctrines would have availed little, if he had been able to substantiate them.

Art. IV. *The Annual Anthology*. Vol. II. Crown 8vo. pp. 300. 6s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

Some of the Antients made a distinction respecting the two summits of Parnassus, which has been lately overlooked. They supposed that one of them produced good, and the other bad verses. The elder poets, aware of this difference in the soil, took their station on Helicon, and profited accordingly: but the moderns, reckoning on the fertility of all parts of the hill, have imprudently attempted to cultivate its most unproductive regions. We fear that Mr. Southey and his friends have settled themselves among some of these heaths and morasses, and that their intended flower-garden will pay them with little else than weeds.

In our account of the first volume of this work, [M. Rev. for April last,] we undertook a close examination of this poetical parterre, and endeavoured to convince the proprietors that it would be conducive to their interest to cultivate more elegant plants: but, in this additional volume, we find the surface overspred with the *infelix lolium*, of narcotic and disgusting properties. We shall therefore take a much shorter view of the present exhibition of flowers, as we conceive that the soil is irreclaimable, and "*culturæ non patiens annuæ*." (Hor.) Instead of characterizing every poem, we shall only notice those pieces which appear to possess merit; and this review will constitute an article of very moderate length.

In the rambling legendary tale of St. Juan de Gualberto, we observe two tolerably good stanzas:

'Slow sunk the glorious sun, a roseate light
 Spread o'er the forest from his lingering rays,
The glowing clouds upon Gualberto's sight
 Soften'd in shade,—he could not chuse but gaze;
And now a placid greyness clad the heaven,
 Save where the west retain'd the last green light of even.

'Cool breath'd the grateful air, and fresher now
 The fragrance of the autumnal leaves arose,
The passing gale scarce mov'd the o'erhanging bough,
 And not a sound disturb'd the deep repose,
Save when a falling leaf came fluttering by,
 Save the near brooklet's stream that murmur'd quietly.'

Mr. Coleridge's *Recantation, or Story of the Mad Ox*, contains some humour, and just political satire. We would gladly have inserted it, but it has already appeared in some publications of the day.

We observe, in many parts of this volume, an emulation and perhaps an attainment of the manner of Peter Pindar: but there is still too much of the prosaic dialogue, of which we complained in our account of the former volume.—We extract the following short poem, as a good comment on Dr. Johnson's celebrated epigram on Miss Aston; which the writer before us however has not noticed:

'*The Fair Democrate.*

'The wish, that fills thy generous mind,
The Liberty of Human-kind,
I love;—and, as thy voice inspires
My Soul, I burn with Freedom's fires!
But, when I view those melting eyes,
The rude and hardy spirit dies;
Striking my pensive breast, I swear
That thou shalt reign despotic there;
Bend to thy charms the ready knee,
And, captive, sue not to be free
From chains, more dear than Liberty!'

The *Ode to the Duchess of Devonshire*, though by no means free from affectation, is pleasing on the whole.

It is scarcely worth while, perhaps, to mention a plagiarism of the strange writer who signs himself *Theoderit* in these volumes: but his '*Ode to a Pig, while his Nose* WAS BEING[*] *bored*,' resembles so closely a *jeu d'esprit* by Mr. Huddesford on the American War, published in his *Salmagundi*, that we can hardly deem the approximation accidental. No creatures, indeed, can be more cruelly *bored* than the readers of Theoderit, and they may well accost the object of his ode thus:

'Midst all thy ills, rejoice, O squeaking pig!
That thy free soul no alphabet confined;
Else, with the readers of this rhyming prig,
Thy loathing heart had wish'd that thou wert blind.
For howsoe'er by gimlet, or by awl,
Thy nice proboscis might be sharply stung,
We felt more anguish from th' affected drawl,
While thy encomiast's ode *was being sung*.

If these poetical florists should continue their annual exhibition, we hope that they will exclude, in future, their sowthistles and brambles. "Ill weeds grow apace;" and their luxuriance will not intitle the careless gardener to the approbation of good judges.

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[*] Literally thus printed, in this elegant Anthology!

Art. V. *A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Northumberland*, with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture. By J. Bailey and G. Culley. 8vo. pp. 209. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

NORTHUMBERLAND may be considered as a mineral rather than an agricultural county; and if antideluvian longevity were now prevalent, we should anticipate most uncomfortable sensations of cold in some future winter, on perusing the information conveyed to us in this work, respecting the exhaustible state of the coals: for we are here told that, in two or three centuries, they will be so far wrought out, that the metropolis can be no longer supplied from this quarter. As, however, we do not expect to be classed with Methuselah, we shall keep a good fire, and leave our children's children to find elsewhere a substitute for Newcastle coal. To attend, then, to the particulars in the Survey before us; it appears that the County of Northumberland, together with those detached parts of the county of Durham called Norhamshire, Islandshire [*], and Bedlingtonshire [†], includes in its greatest length from north to south 64 miles, in breadth 48, and contains 1980 square miles, or 1,267,200 acres [‡]; of which there are stated to be 450,000 mountainous and unfit for tillage, leaving 817,200 that may be cultivated by the plough. It is divided into six wards: its climate, in regard to temperature, is extremely variable; and its surface exhibits both strong and light soil.

Among the mineral productions, *coal* occupies the first place; and, as this is an interesting subject to a great portion of the kingdom, we shall lay before our readers a part of the curious detail respecting this substance. We pass over the calculation of the cost and charge on a ship load of coals containing 20 *keels* *, or 160 Newcastle chaldrons, delivered in the port of London; and extract only what relates to the actual state of the collieries, and their period of exhaustion.

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[*] '*Norhamshire* and *Islandshire* are situated at the northern extremity of the county of Northumberland, and comprehend a triangular space, the two sides of which are formed by the river Tweed and German Ocean, and the base the northern boundary of Glendale and Bambro' Wards; it contains about 72 square miles of well-inclosed cultivated country.'

[†] '*Bedlingtonshire* is situated at the south-east corner of Castle Ward, bounded on the east by the German Ocean, and on the north and south by the rivers Wansbeck and Blyth, and contains about 30 square miles.'

[‡] We are not informed what is the population of this county.

'It has been asserted, that "*the coals in this county are inexhaustible.*"—Mr. Williams, in his Natural History of the Mineral Kingdom, is of a different opinion, and thinks it a matter of such importance as to deserve the serious attention of the Legislature.—Towards elucidating this point, it may be of some use to estimate what number of acres are wrought yearly in this county to supply the requisite quantity of coals: in order to accomplish this object, the thickness and number of workable seams of coal must be first ascertained; for which purpose we have been favoured with sections exhibiting the thickness and depth of the various strata, in some of the deepest pits in the county; which will not only be useful for the present purpose, but we hope will be acceptable to many of our readers, who are curious in researches of subterraneous geography.

'At St. Anthon's colliery (three miles east of Newcastle) the different seams of coal are as follow:

Seams.	Thickness of each seam.			Depth to each seam.		
	Ft.	In.		Yds.	Ft.	In.
1. Coal	0	6	—	34	0	6
2. Ditto	0	8	—	44	1	2
3. Ditto	0	6	—	66	1	8
4. Ditto	1	0	—	82	2	2
5. Ditto	0	6	—	94	0	8
6. Ditto	0	8	—	101	2	4
7. Ditto	0	8	—	108	1	0
8. Ditto	1	0	—	128	0	0
9. High Main Coal	6	0	—	152	0	0
10. Coal	3	0	—	193	0	5
11. Ditto	0	6	—	200	2	2
12. Ditto	1	6	—	219	2	5
13. Ditto	3	3	—	247	0	2
14. Ditto	3	2	—	256	2	8
15. Ditto	0	9	—	258	1	5
16. Low Main Coal	6	6	—	270	1	8

'In the above pit or shaft, which is nearly the deepest in the kingdom, there are no less than 16 seams of coal. But many of these, from their thinness, are not workable. The 9th, called the *high main coal*, and the 16th, the *low main coal*, are the two principal seams for affording quantities of coal, being together 12½ feet thick, and are those most generally wrought. But the 10th, 13th, and 14th, are all workable seams, and will afford considerable quantities of coal; the aggregate of the three making nearly 9½ feet thick; so that the total thickness of the workable seems in this colliery amount to 22 feet.

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* To many persons, the information here annexed by way of note will be acceptable. 'A keel of coals is 21 tons 4 cwt. and contains 8 *Newcastle chaldrons*, so that each chaldron is 53 cwt.—A *London chaldron* (mark the difference!) contains 36 heaped Winchester bushels, and weighs on an average 28½ cwt. (according to the quality of the coals) which weights being nearly in the ratio of 8 to 15, it is always reckoned that 8 Newcastle chaldrons make 15 London chaldrons.' How came it to pass that the same word at Newcastle and London should denote such different quantities?

' In Montague Main colliery (three miles west of Newcastle) the different seams of coal are as follow:

Seams.	Thickness of each seam. Ft.	In.		Depth to each seam. Yds.	Ft.	In.
1. Coal	0	4	—	5	2	0
2. Ditto	0	6	—	44	1	0
3. Ditto	0	9	—	63	2	9
4. Benwell Main	5	3	—	69	1	10
5. Coal	1	0	—	79	2	10
6. Ditto	0	8	—	133	1	6
7. Ditto	3	4	—	137	1	10
8. Ditto	1	6	—	143	1	3
9. Ditto	1	3	—	147	2	2
10. Ditto	0	8	—	162	2	6
11. Low Main Coal	2	11	—	176	0	4
12. Lower Main Coal	2	10	—	199	2	10
13. Coal	0	6	—	226	0	10
14. Ditto	0	5	—	233	1	5
15. Ditto	0	3	—	241	1	10

' In this shaft there are 15 seams of coal, of which only four are workable, viz. the 4th, 7th, 11th, and 12th, making together 4 yds. 1 ft. 7 ins. of workable coal. If the medium be taken betwixt this and St. Anthon's, it will be nearly 6 yards thick of workable coal, from which may be formed

' *A calculation of the quantity of coal in an acre of ground, supposing the aggregate thickness of the various seams amount to 6 yards.*

An acre of ground contains - -	4840 square yards
which, multiplied by the thickness, -	6 yards,
gives - - - - -	29040 cubic yards in an acre.
From which deduct ⅓ for waste, and the part or pillars necessary to be left in working	9680
there remains - - -	19360 cubic yards to be wrought.

And as three cubic yards of coal, when wrought, afford a Newcastle chaldron,

therefore 19360 divided by 3 } gives 6453 Newcastle chaldrons per acre.

' The

he coals exported yearly from the rivers Tyne and Wear, with y and Blythe, amount to about 825000 chaldrons, which, ıe home consumption of the two counties of Northumberland urham, will make the quantity of coals raised yearly about ɔo chaldrons.

ıe chaldrons raised yearly 1000000 } gives 155 acres nearly per
——— } year, cleared of coal 6 yds.
l by the chaldrons per acre 6453 } thick.

ıd by estimating the breadth occupied by the caking coals to ın average 8 miles broad, and 25 miles long, in the two coun-'e shall find there will be about 200 square miles, or 128000 of coal proper for exportation.

the whole area 128000 } gives 825 years, the time before
l by the yearly ——— } this space will be wrought
ıumption, 155 } out.

ıt there are some reasons to think that a thickness of seam, equal ırds, will not be obtained over an extent of 200 square miles; ıly not more on an average than 4 yards; in which case, the ill be exhausted in 550 years: and if the aggregate thickness of ıms to be obtained should prove only 3 yards, then little more oo years will be the term of continuance; but it is probable before the half of that time be elapsed, the price to the con-will be considerably increased, from the increased expence of ing them, and the increased length of carriage from the pits to er. This last, we presume, may be reduced in some situations, ıpting canals instead of waggon-ways, which, we have often red, have never yet been attempted.

rom the above investigation, it appears that Mr. Williams's ap-ısions are not so chimerical as have been represented; how far r be right for the legislature to interfere, we leave to the consi-ɔn of those more conversant in political speculations.

'f the coal found all through Bambro' ward, Islandshire, and parts of Glendale ward east of the river Till, the seams are very mostly from 1 to 3 feet thick, and of a very inferior quality, ıg a great quantity of ashes, and neither caking in the fire nor ıg to a cinder: they are used only for home-consumption, and rning lime; for the latter purpose they are well adapted, by property of neither caking nor burning to a cinder; and it luck-ppens, that through all this district, the coal and lime are ılly found together; a circumstance which greatly facilitates ssens the expence of burning lime.'

xt to the collieries, this county is famous for its salmon ies; of which the following brief notice is taken:

he Tyne and Tweed have been long celebrated for their salmon es: in the latter a rent of 800 l. a year is paid for a fishing of ards in length, near the mouth of the river; and the same rent d for other two fishings above the bridge, not more than 250 in length each. The fish taken here are, the salmon, bull-whitling, and large common trout, and nearly the whole of sent to London; in the conveyance of which, a great improvement has taken place of late years, by packing them in pounded ice; by this means they are presented nearly as fresh at the London market, as when taken out of the river. For the purpose of carrying them, and keeping up a constant and regular supply, vessels called smacks sail three times a week, and being purposely constructed for swift sailing, frequently make their run in 48 hours. These vessels are from 70 to 120 tons burden; on an average 12 men are employed in each vessel, and make about 14 voyages in a year; and not less than 75 boats, and 300 fishermen, are employed in taking the fish in the river Tweed.'

Estates vary from 20l. to 40,000l. yearly rental; and the annual value of the landed property (which is mostly freehold,) is set at 605,000l. The farms are let at from 50l. to 4000l. per annum; and the agricultural profession appears to be in the highest esteem:

'The character of a farmer is here so respectable, that gentlemen who possess landed property from 500l. to 1500l. a year, think it no debasement to follow the profession; and so high a name have many of the farmers obtained, for their superior knowlege in rural affairs, that they are seldom without pupils from various and distant parts of the kingdom, with whom they have very handsome premiums*.— Amongst the present pupils may be reckoned the son of an Earl, and the son of a Baronet;—who, from their abilities, attention, and anxious readiness to learn and work at every operation, we hope will do credit to the profession, and render the most essential services to their respective districts.'

As this Report is drawn up according to the plan laid down by the Board of Agriculture, it contains information under the usual heads of *Implements—Inclosures—Arable Land—Grass—Improvements—Rural Economy--Political Economy*,—and *Miscellaneous Observations*: but we cannot follow the Reporters through details of practice which would be interesting only to the agricultural reader, and which they have given with all possible conciseness.

A map and plates (representing *implements*, *cattle*, and different breeds of *sheep*) embellish this volume: but the explanation of provincial terms is a more material circumstance, to which the gentlemen employed in exploring other districts have not sufficiently attended. We are obliged to Messrs. Bailey and Culley for their care in this respect; and we shall dismiss them from our court with general commendation. We are by no means of opinion, however, that the scheme recommended at the conclusion of their work, of large *Public Farms*, in every county, would be so conducive to the advancement of agricultural knowlege and to the public benefit as they imagine. Such *Public Farms* would soon become mere jobs or play-things. The

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'* Generally 100l. per annum.'

improvement of the Science of Agriculture requires the attention of sensible practical men : but there is no occasion for the expenditure of vast sums in national experiments.

ART. VI. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Lord Somerville*, one of the Lords of his Majesty's Bedchamber, and late President of the Board of Agriculture, with a View to shew the Inutility of the Plans and Researches of that Institution, and how it may be employed in others more beneficial. With Remarks on the recent Communications of the Board, and a Review of the Pamphlets of Arthur Young and William Brooke, Esqrs. upon the present high Price of Provisions. By a Society of Practical Farmers. 8vo. pp. 141. 3s. sewed. Cawthorn. 1800.

As discussion is that collision of minds by which the sparks of truth are often excited, we are always desirous of promoting the operation of this mental flint and steel, provided it e used with politeness and good temper. The authors (perhaps only author) of this letter term themselves ‘plain blunt-peaking men ;’ and had they been only this, since they evince competent knowlege of the subjects of which they profess to reat, their observations might have been thankfully received by he Board of Agriculture, as well as by the public: but there ppears a degree of acrimony against the Board, and particularly against its Secretary, which will probably lead to the suspicion that the pamphlet before us partly originated in narrow and interested views. Certainly, *a Society of Practical Farmers* has here employed an able advocate for them ; and under their directions and instructions, he has offered to the public some judicious and important observations : but we are of opinion that his attack on the Board of Agriculture is intemperate. Allowing that the Board has been ill conducted, it cannot be said to be ‘a self-created institution ;’ (p. 125,) and though persons had hitherto disappointed the expectations which some may have formed respecting the benefit resulting from it, it cannot be pronounced to have been either inactive or unprofitable. At present, it must be considered as in its infancy : but it has laid a good foundation for future operations, by obtaining surveys of the respective counties of England and Scotland ; and though it may not have been universally fortunate in the persons whom it has employed, or though the *Reports* contain numerous errors, (which all persons who consider the nature of such undertakings will pardon,) it is confessed that the Board has roused a spirit for agricultural improvements, from which future advantages may be reasonably expected. We pretend to no knowlege of the component parts of this institution, nor of the secret views of Ministers in its formation ; if it be made *a jobb*, and an engine of influence, it ought, as far as this charge extends, to be reprobated: but, while its publications manifest a desire of acquiring and diffusing that kind of knowlege which has an evident tendency to bring into general action the energies of the country, we would not pronounce any hasty censure on it. May not expectation be exorbitant, and condemnation premature? If the views of the Board be commendable, is it to be reprobated for mistakes? If it has accomplished some things, and is progressive in its labours, are we rashly to censure it because it has not done every thing?

It cannot be supposed that a Board of Agriculture should be active in improvements; it can only be considered as a means of stimulating inquiry, and of promoting the diffusion of knowlege, like the Philosophical Board called the Royal Society. Some may ask, of what use has the Royal Society been to the country? Has it adopted any system of philosophy? No. It professedly avoids all adoption, and contents itself with communicating to the public, in its Transactions, the results of individual inquiry; and with giving premiums to those who produce the most valuable papers. A similar principle should govern the Board of Agriculture. It should, however, like other Societies, publish a list of its Members; and, in order to be useful, it should be removed from ministerial interference. If it be not, a ground of complaint may exist.

If these *Practical Farmers* are of opinion that they can assist the Board of Agriculture with hints which may be of use to the public, and direct its attention to matters hitherto overlooked, they are to be commended for offering them: but this should be done in at least a civil manner. Opposed to the inquiries and speculations of Societies formed of Gentlemen and Men of Science, we are always happy to see the observations and reflections of practical men; and in this light the Letter before us is valuable.

The *Farmers* thus state their disappointments, and inform the Board of the particular subjects which they supposed would first have invited its attention:

'As to the too wet state of particular districts.
'The breaches of banks and overflowing of rivers.
'Oozings of springs.
'The soke of internal water.
'Overflowing of water from higher lands.
'Rain water retained in stiff soils.
'Low lands subject to be overflowed by the sea.
'Injurious attempts at partial drainage in large districts.
'Injuries sustained by the proprietors of different districts from not classing and incorporating themselves for the purposes of general and particular benefit.

'Deby

'Delay of improvement in not gaining land from the sea, and partial washes at the mouths of rivers.

'Injuries which proprietors of marshes sustain in dry seasons for want of supplies of fresh water.

'Present plan of driving fat oxen 150 miles to be slaughtered for the Navy.

'The general want of drainage of large districts.

'The neglected state of his Majesty's forests.

'Injurious plan of leasing the Crown Lands at high rents.

'Present plan of inclosing common fields attended with unnecessary expences.

'The same with commons and wastes.

'Standing orders of the Houses of Parliament.'

Sensible remarks are annexed, which we hope will be regarded. 'A General Inclosure Act, it is said, could it be obtained, would be unnecessary; all that is wanting is to exonerate Inclosure Bills from the enormous fees to which they are subject, in passing through the two houses.

The observations on the present high price of provisions discover knowlege of the subject, while they are in some respects an apology for the farmer. This evil is principally referred to the war. It is remarked that, while Mr. Young, in writing his "Question of Scarcity plainly considered *," must have revolved in his mind all the material causes of the present high price of corn, it is very extraordinary that he should not have adverted to that great waste of provisions for the sustenance of man which must frequently happen, when 'a great insulated nation is at war with several other powers; and, as respects the condition of this country at the present moment, a very extraordinary degree of waste of food for man and beast must have happened in the late unsuccessful invasion of Holland, as well as in every other expedition undertaken by this country, and in the supply of foreign garrisons. He should have reflected also, that by the unprecedented increase of both our Army and Navy, there has been a greater number of inhabitants, than at any former period, subsisting on the productions of the soil, without contributing in the smallest degree towards its cultivation.'

While the dearness of provisions is attributed to the war, is it not strange that these farmers should intimate that, if a proper attention had been paid in due time (we conclude that they mean by the Board) to the objects pointed out in this letter, the words *Scarcity of Provisions*, without monopoly, could not now be in the mouth of an Englishman? p. 131.

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[*] See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxi. p. 440.

These *Practical Farmers* do not write in character, when they oppose the idea thrown out in most of the agricultural Reports composed for the consideration of the Board, that tithes taken in kind are an obstacle to improvement; and when they discountenance the plan of commutation, they moreover display an expansion and cultivation of mind not usual with *Practical Farmers*, in their statement of the superior and permanent advantages derived to a country from agriculture, compared with those which result from commerce. Their remarks on this subject are so good, that we cannot refrain from transcribing a part of them:

> 'Happy would it be for Britain, if the baneful predominant spirit for foreign commerce and colonization were somewhat restrained, and a portion of the capital and industry employed in it were diverted to the cultivation of the soil, and to the amelioration of the condition of its inhabitants, before it is too late to avert the impending evil.
>
> 'Trade, like its element the sea, has a certain pitch above which it never rises in the highest tides; and it begins to ebb whenever it ceases to flow; and always recedes in one place in proportion as it gains in another. It would be wise, therefore, in this country to examine with a discriminating eye whether or not its commercial tide has arrived at its utmost height.
>
> 'To be convinced of the fluctuation and instability of commercial greatness, we have only to take a retrospective glance of the history of Tyre, Carthage, Athens, Syracuse, Agrigentum, Rhodes, Venice, Florence, Lisbon, the Hans-Towns, Antwerp, and Holland. We shall there find, that the prosperity and the wealth of each declined when a rival arose; and in proportion as other states became their own carriers, the tides of these ebbed in succession, to flow no more. Their great opulence, on which alone depended their existence, excited other nations to their conquest; while the consequent luxury and dissipation of the inhabitants, by weakening their attachments and enfeebling their characters, hastened and facilitated their final destruction. Agricultural pursuits, on the contrary, not only invigorate the body and mind, but foster and preserve local attachments, and incite gratitude to that soil to which we are taught to trust for the comforts of life.'

As we appear at present to be fascinated by the splendor of commerce, we may not be pleased with having it suggested to us that it is a very transient pageant: but, at all events, let us not depend too much on blessings which, if they come at all, must *float to us*, but endeavour to make the *soil of Britain* adequate to the sustentation and comfort of its inhabitants.

Art. VII. ΕΥΡΙΠΙΔΟΥ ΦΟΙΝΙΣΣΑΙ. *Euripidis Phœnissæ, ad fidem Manuscriptorum emendata, et brevibus notis emendationum potissimum rationes reddentibus instructa.* In usum studiosæ Juventutis. 8vo. pp. 128. Wilkie, Londini. 1799.

When it is recollected that three Greek plays have been edited by Prof. Porson in less than three years, it will surely be granted that he has deserved well of the literary world. We can with pleasure inform the laborious student, and the sagacious scholar, that they will find ample materials in the notes on the *Phœnissæ*, to reward them for the trouble and time which they may bestow in a perusal; since the same accurate learning, and the same minute diligence, will be observed in them, which we have commended so frequently in the articles relative to the Greek Professor's edition of the Hecuba and Orestes.—We do not, at present, feel inclined to retract the smallest particle of these commendations, from having lately perused the preface and notes which *Godofred Herman* has presented to the learned, in his recent publication of the Hecuba, at Leipsic, 1800. We are obliged to M. *Herman* for his civility, in general, to our reviews of Mr. Porson's Plays and Mr. Wakefield's Diatribe; and we are pleased at finding our decisions, on various points, farther established by this learned foreigner's observations: but we must recommend to him more caution and more politeness in his remarks, when he differs from Mr. Porson or from others. The language of criticism ought to be the language of a scholar, and of a gentleman.

It is not now our intention to enter into a complete examination of the notes on the Phœnissæ: but we shall give a few specimens.

V. 5.——Κάδμος ἡνίκ' ἦλθε γῆν.

' *In fine hujus versus Aldus addit* θεῶν, *quæ vox unde irrepserit, nescio. Alibi tamen eam abundare vidi. In fragmento Pirithoi, ubi vulgo legitur,* Σὲ τὸν αὐτοφυῆ, τὸν ἐν αἰθερίῳ ῥύμβῳ πάντων φύσιν ἐμπλέξανθ', *habet* σὲ τὸν αὐτοφυῆ, πάντων θεῶν αἰθέρα ῥύμβῳ *Scholiastes Apollonii Rhodii IV.* 144. *Ex Hippolyto* 1139. (1143. *Musg.*) θεᾶς *recte ejecit Brunckius; quanquam ne sic quidem iste locus perpurgatus videtur. Sed sæpius deest hæc vox, quam redundat. Androm.* 270. ἄκη βροτοῖς θεῶν ἐγκαταστῆσαί τινα, βροτοῖσιν *tantum habet editio princeps. Sophocl. Philoct.* 992. θεοὺς προτείνων, τοὺς θεοὺς ψευδεῖς τίθης, *secundum* θεοὺς *omittit Aldus. Aristoph. Pac.* 938. ὡς πάνθ' ὅσ' ἂν θεὸς θέλῃ, χἠ τύχη κατορθοῖ, *Aldus et utraque Juntina omittunt* θεὸς, *sed præbent Scholiastes et Suidas* v. πάνθ' ὅσ' ἄν. T. III. p. 18. *In Sophoclis Oed. C.* 1623. *ubi nunc legitur,* φθέγμα δ' ἐξαίφνης τινὸς θώϋξεν αὐτὸν, *legendum est,* φθέγμα δ' ἐξαίφνης τινὸς θεῶν θώϋξ'. *Contra in Nostri Herc. Fur.* 310. ὃ χρὴ γὰρ οὐδεὶς μὴ θεῶν θήσει ποτέ. *Quæ nemo, opinor, intelligit. Lege,* ὃ χρὴ γὰρ οὐδεὶς μὴ χρεὼν θήσει ποτέ. *Tragicus apud Plutarch. Cons. ad Apollon, p.* 103. *B.* τό τοι χρεὼν οὐκ ἔστι μὴ χρεὼν

ποιεῖν. *In proximo versu* Φοίνισσαν ἐναλίαν χθόνα Tyrum insulam *interpretatur Scholiastes.*'

V. 511. Νυν δ' οὔθ' ὅμοιον οὐδὲν, οὔτ' ἴσον βροτοῖς,
Πλὴν ὀνόμασιν· ——

'512. ὀνομάσαι *omnes edd. et MSS. Edidi* ὀνόμασιν, *quod cum sine* ν, *ut passim fit, scriberetur, facile mutari potuit.* λόγος *et* ἔργον *quoties opponantur, præsertim a Tragicis, nemo ignorat. Neque raro* ὄνομα *et* ἔργον, *ut Orest.* 448. ὄνομα γὰρ, ἔργον δ' οὐκ ἔχουσιν οἱ φίλοι. *Iph. A.* 1121. τοῖς ὀνόμασιν μὲν εὖ λέγεις, τὰ δ' ἔργα σου Οὐκ οἶδ' ὅπως χρή μ' ὀνομάσασαν εὖ λέγειν. *Sed hoc vitiosum in hac oppositione alicui fortasse videatur, quod in altero membro nomen est plurale, in altero singulare; in altero additur articulus, in altero omittitur. Verum tales minutias non curiose sectantur Tragici. Sophocl. Elect.* 59. τί γάρ με λυπεῖ τοῦθ', ὅταν λόγῳ θανὼν Ἔργοισι σωθῶ. *Ibi quidem* λόγοισι *citat Eustathius ad Od.* Λ. *p.* 1701, 63. (459, 24.) *sed* λόγῳ *retinent Eumathius IX. p.* 363. *Suidas* v. τί γάρ με. *Oed. C.* 1187. τά τοι καλῶς Εὑρημέν' ἔργα, τῷ λόγῳ μηνύεται. *Utrumque negligit Oed. C.* 782. λόγῳ μὲν ἐσθλὰ, τοῖσι δ' ἔργοισιν κακά. *Euripides Androm.* 264. τοιόνδ' ἔχω σου δέλεαρ· ἀλλὰ γὰρ λόγους Κρύψω, τὸ δ' ἔργον αὐτὸ σημανεῖ τάχα. *Troad.* 1241. τλήμων ἰατρὸς, ὄνομ' ἔχουσα τἄργα δ' οὔ. *Ovid. Amor. I.* 12, 27.
Ergo ego vos REBUS duplices pro NOMINE sensi.'

V. 866. Κόπῳ παρεῖμαι γοῦν', Ἐρεχθειδῶν ἄπο.

'866. πάρειμι *Ald. et pars codicum. Sed* πάρειμαι *Grot.* παρεῖμαι *Schol. et decem minimum MSS.* Ἐρεχθειδῶν *quod recte dederat Aldus, editiones quædam in* Ἐρεχθειδᾶν *et* Ἐρεχθιδᾶν *corrupere. Pro* γοῦν *quod habent Aldus et major pars codicum,* γῆς *præbent Cant. et alius Kingii (non enim optimus, ut ipse vocat)* γᾶς *M. R.* γὰρ *Grot.* κόπῳ παρεῖμαι *bene illustrat Valckenærius e Bacch.* 634. κόπου δ' ὕπο, Διαμεθεὶς ξίφος, παρεῖται. *pro* γοῦν *conjicit* γυῖ'. *Habuit ante oculos, quod quærebat. Codicum enim lectio sana est, modo elisionis notam apponas;* γοῦν', genua. *Neque ratio fingi potest, cur Tragici hac forma abstinuerint, cum libenter* γούνατα *adhibeant. Si Medeam olim edidero, editionis primæ lectionem* 325, μὴ πρός σε γούνων, *restituam. Porro* γοῦνα *occurrit in choliambo Phœnicis Colophonii apud Athenæum VIII. p.* 359. *F.* καὶ μητρὶ κούρην ἐς τὰ γοῦνα κατθεῖν. *Occurrit etiam* γοῦν' *elisum in illustri Empedoclis loco de divina natura apud Ammonium in quarto de interpretatione G.* vii. 1, 19. *ed Ald.* 1503. *fol.* 199. *ver. sed.* 1545. *Locum integrum inde correctius adscribam, quam prout ex Tzetze Chil. XIII.* 81. *H. Stephanus dedit in Poësi Philosophica, p.* 30. Οὔτε γὰρ ἀνδρομέῃ κεφαλῇ κατὰ γυῖα κέκασται, Οὐ μὲν ἀπαὶ νώτων γε δύο κλάδοι ἀΐσσουσιν, Οὐ πόδες, οὐ θοὰ γοῦν', οὐ μήδεα λαχνήεντα, Ἀλλὰ φρὴν ἱερὴ καὶ ἀθέσφατος ἔπλετο μοῦνον, Φροντίσι κόσμον ἅπαντα καταΐσσουσα θοῇσι.'

V. 986. ——τῆσδ' ἀπαλλαχθεὶς χθονός.

'986. ἀπαλλαγεὶς *Ald. Asperas et antiquas formas adamarunt Tragici, ideoque aoristos priores prætulere. Sic habet* ἐθρέφθην *Noster Hec.* 355. θρεφθῆναι *ex eadem fabula* 600, *et* κρυφθεὶς *ex Orest.* 42. *citat Eustathius ad Il. E. p.* 519, 41, 44 (393, 27. 29.) θαφθεῖσι, *quod ex Herodoto ibidem memorat, invenies VII.* 228. ἐθάφθη *Simonidi restituendum pro* ἐκάμφθη *apud Athen. III. p.* 125. *D. In loco supra ex Hecuba laudato* τραφῆναι

habent

J. N. et in textu R. sed hic θρεφθῆναι *pro* v. *l. Duo MSS. Hero-*
l. 81. ταφῆναι *pro* θαφθῆναι. *Recte, igitur,* ἀπαλλαχθεὶς *ex pluribus*
reposuit Valckenærius, sed successu paullo confidentior factus, e Tra-
m reliquiis infelicem illum aoristum extirpare conatur. Et hoc quidem
trum fieri potest in Æschyli Agam. 344. *et Sophoclis Antig.* 428.
) *quid autem faciet Æschyli Prom.* 749. ἀπηλλάγην; κρεῖσσον γὰρ
ιξ θανεῖν. *Male etiam affirmat, ne semel quidem* ἀπαλλαγεὶς *aut* ἀπαλ-
ι *apud Nostrum inveniri, cum* ἀπηλλάγης *exstet in Androm.* 593.
uam et illud sine metri jactura mutari poterat. Sed quomodo factum
duo loca hujus ipsius fabulæ 601. 1424. *prætervidert?'*

1150. Ταῖς δ' ἑβδόμαις ———

150. ταῖς δ' ἑβδόμαις. *De septem Thebarum portis, quinque præci-*
ctores, Æschylus, Euripides, Apollodorus, Pausanias, Statius, (*Hy-*
iim nullam rationem habemus) *non omnino eadem tradunt. Maxima*
Apollodoro difficultas, qui inter Ogygias portas et Oncaïdas diserte
uit. Oncaïdas et Ogygias easdem portas vocari auctor est Hesychius.
; Ἀθήνας. τὰς Ὠγυγίας πύλας λέγει. *Oncaïdas memorat Æschylus, non*
as; Ogygias, non Oncaïdas Euripides, Pausanias, Statius. Quas
Apollodorus, Neïtas, ceteri omnes habent. Quid si ponamus Apol-
m scripsisse primo τὰς Ὠγυγίας ἢ Ὀγκαΐδας, *deinde* τὰς Νηΐτας *suo*
sed Ὀγκαΐδας *omissum postea in margine repositum, sede sua alterum*
expulisse. Porro Hebdomæ non sunt proprium portarum nomen, sed
ylus et Euripides, sex portis jam nomine designatis, ultimas commemo-
upersederunt. Scholii, quod supra citavi ad 1148, *reliqua sunt hæc:*
ὲ φασὶ τὰς εὐδόμους πύλας τῆς Βοιωτίας καλεῖσθαι, ἀπὸ Βοιωτοῦ, τοῦ Πο-
ς καὶ τῆς σοφῆς Μελανίππης ἀφ' οὗ πᾶσα ἡ Βοιωτία ἐκλήθη. *Lege* τὰς
ς πύλας Βοιωτίας καλεῖσθαι. *His positis, portarum nomina sic distri-*
1. Προιτίδες. 2. Ἠλέκτραι. 3. Νηΐται. 4. Ὀγκαΐδες ἢ Ὠγύγιαι.
ψίσται ἢ Ὕψισται ἢ Βοιώτιαι. 6. Ὁμολωΐδες. 7. Κρηναῖαι ἢ Διρκαῖαι.'

1373. πῶς καὶ πέπρακται διπτύχων παίδων φόνος;

373. καὶ πῶς *Edd. omnes ante Valckenærium, et sic K. R. fortasse*
id. sec. πῶς δὲ *Flor. unde edidit Valckenærius,* πῶς δή. *Sed glossa*
tud δὲ, *ut liquet e C. ubi superscriptum est. Ceteri codices magno*
o, πῶς καὶ, *Bodleiani, C. Cant. D. J. L. M. De membranis silet*
ckius, qui tacite edidit πῶς δή. *Eo nomine* καὶ πῶς *vitiosa est lectio,*
objicientis fere est vel contradicentis, ut modo 1367. *Sensus est,* Dic
rea quomodo. *Ita solet copula interrogativis* τίς, πῶς, ποῖ, ποῦ, ποῖος;
mi. Hec. 519. πῶς καί νιν ἐξεπράξατ'; ἆρ' αἰδούμενοι; 1055. ποῖ καί
γᾳ Πτώσσουσι μυχῶν; *Alc.* 846. ποῦ καί σφε θάπτει; *Aristoph. Pac.*
. τοῦ καί ποτ' εἶ; *Sophocl. Aj.* 1290. ποῖ βλέπων ποτ' αὐτὰ καί θροεῖς;
b. 339. τί δ' ἐστὶ, τοῦ με τήνδ' ἐφίστασαι βάσιν; *Vertit Brunckius;*
l est vero? cur meum sistis gradum? *Quem sensum vereor ut verba*
tant. Prima Scholiorum editio, τοῦ κε τήνδ' ἐφίστασαι (*non* ἐφίστασθαι,
runckius) βάσιν. *Lege igitur et distingue,* τί δ' ἐστί; τοῦ καὶ τήνδ'
ίσαι βάσιν; *Nonnunquam inter primam vocem et* καὶ *interponunt*
Hec. 1191. τίνα δὲ καὶ σπεύδων χάριν Πρόθυμος ἦσθα; *Androm.* 396.
με καὶ τεκεῖν ἐχρῆν; *Iph. A.* 1202. τίς δὲ καὶ προσβλέψεται Παῖδων
ν ἂν προθέμενος κτάνης τινά; *Sophocl. Antig.* 1314. ποίῳ δὲ κἀπελύσατ'
αῖς τρόπῳ; *Atque hæc sufficient ad vindicandum Hippol.* 92. Οὐκ οἶδα·
ὶ καί μ' ἀνιστορεῖς πέρι; *Quem imperite sollicitavit Brunckius.'*

It would be an easy and indeed a pleasant employment to extend these quotations: but they must suffice; as they will readily allure the critical reader to peruse the tragedy of the *Phœnissæ* by Euripides, thus accompanied by the notes of Mr. Porson.

Art. VIII. *The Sovereign.* Addressed to his Imperial Majesty Paul **Emperour of all the Russias**. By Charles Small Pybus, M. P. One of the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury. Folio. pp. 60. Price 1l. 1s.; or with a Portrait, 1l. 11s. 6d. White. 1800.

The inventive genius of modern times appears with peculiar lustre in that new species of the *sublime*, of which the magnificent poem before us is an astonishing example. The gigantic types, the folio wove-paper, and the awe-inspiring portrait, like the

"*Vultus instantis tyranni,*"

have superseded the old rules of Longinus, and have forced admiration from the appalled beholder, even before he reads. Mr. Pybus is certainly "as tall a poet of his hands," as any wight that has issued from the press within our memory; and he may vie for title-page, print, and margin, with the first of our bards. When, however, we have bestowed this praise on his work, we have exhausted every source of panegyric; for his verses are formed only to be viewed, not to be perused: his poetry is so like a picture, (according to the Horatian precept,) that it will not bear the near approach of the eye.

The happy alliteration resulting from the title, *a Poem to Paul, by the Poet Pybus*, reminds us of a Latin work intitled, *Pugna Porcorum; per Publium Porcium, Poetam.*—Though this work is addressed to the Emperor Paul, it is, with inimitable dexterity, dedicated to our own King. This is a flight of courtly wit, which perhaps will never again be attempted; and the amazing resemblance which Mr. P. has asserted between the illustrious personages, to one of whom he *addresses* his *address* to the other, will be ranked by posterity among the most unexpected discoveries of the present age.

To compress the shining lines of Mr. Pybus into our narrow and unadorned pages is (like translating Virgil) to lose all the beauty of the original: but we shall endeavour to gratify our friends in the country with a specimen of this state-performance, in the address to Peter I. and his ill-fated descendant:

'Illustrious shade! O! could thy soul infuse
Its faint resemblance in the anxious Muse,

Then, in sublimer song her voice should raise
Strains less unequal to her Hero's praise.
But what at last avails the poet's fire?
Vain are his honours, and his boasted lyre:
Vain is the laurel that adorns his brow:
Vain are his numbers: nor can all bestow,
But from their deathless theme alone receive
The fame, not e'en Mæonides could give.
Since then establish'd glory thus defies
The pow'r of poesy, that never dies;
How much more vain are offerings alone,
Compos'd of perishable brass and stone,
Though quarries were consum'd and millions spent,
When the whole empire forms one monument.
'And thou, ill-fated Prince, whom discord gave
An early victim to misfortune's grave,
Whate'er thy frailties were, (and, who has none?)
Amply thy greater virtues shall atone,
Whose heralds on the wings of mercy crost
The trackless deserts of Siberian frost.
Thee, coward cruelty in horrours dight,
And mean suspicion that avoids the light,
And persecution with tormenting flame,
Shall ever execrate, and hate thy name;
While freedom's gratitude and pity's tear
Shall drop a tribute on thy mournful bier.
But Heaven will'd! nor let thy realms deplore
The mix'd event, that left one PETER more.'

This *other Peter*, it seems, means the late Empress; who, by a poetical licence which can only be derived from royal authority, is here invested with the name of her husband. Perhaps Mr. Pybus had been thinking of a passage in Shakspeare:

"And if his name be *George*, I'll call him PETER."

In truth, the author seems liable to mistakes of this kind; for we observe that some of his couplets terminate with words which have not even so much affinity with each other, as that which subsisted between Peter and Catharine;—

"Rhymes, like Scotch cousins, in such order plac'd,
The first scarce claims acquaintance with the last."

Considered in its political relations, Mr. P.'s work is not less unfortunate than in its literary station. After the high and splendid hopes of curbing France which are held out in the poem, comes a dolorous prose-epilogue to inform us that the glory of Europe is blasted, and that the *Emperour* has withdrawn his troops!—Subsequent occurrences have lamentably deepened the gloom of this disappointment; and we sincerely condole with Mr. Pybus on the ungracious return which this *Northern Mecænas* has made to the *British Treasury*, both for *its solid pudding and its empty praise* *.

ART. IX. *Elements of Botany*. Illustrated by Sixteen Engravings. By John Hull, M. D. &c. &c. Manchester. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1800.

WE have pleasure in announcing to our readers the appearance of this publication; which, if we be not much deceived, will tend to enlarge the boundaries of natural history, and to supply what has long been to British botanists one of their most important *desiderata*. Though some objections may be made, yet, considered with respect both to the plan and the execution, it displays much knowlege of the subject, and promises to be of very extensive utility. As its contents, however, from the nature of the objects which it embraces, are necessarily multifarious, it would be an endless task for us to indulge in extracts, or in the more minute species of criticism; and the most that can be expected from us is to give the outline of the author's design, referring to the work itself those who wish for more particular information.

In an able preface of 33 pages, Dr. Hull brings us in some measure acquainted with his plan, makes a few observations on the Botanical language which he employs, and very successfully combats the alterations in the Linnéan system first suggested by Thunberg, and since adopted by many eminent botanists; among whom is to be reckoned our late worthy countryman Dr. Withering. We wish that our limits would allow us to enter on a consideration of each of these points separately: but such an attempt would require too much space; and, indeed, Dr. Hull has (with very few exceptions) adopted the language recommended by Professor Martyn, in his letter on that subject, published in the first volume of the Linnéan Transactions. With regard, also, to Linné's own classes, the botanical world looks up to Dr. Smith with hopes that, when his leisure permits, he will favor us with a complete justification of their original distribution.

Dr. Hull begins with an introduction to the Linnéan system; explaining first what botany is, then defining the parts of a plant, and afterward briefly treating of the Classes, Orders, Genera, Species, and Varieties. This division is followed by an account of the different methods employed in the formation of an herbarium; to which succeeds a definition of the terms used by most writers on the subject, with a particular explanation of those that are found in Hedwig and Gärtner: which, having never before appeared in this language, may be more particularly considered as a valuable addition to our stock of botanical information.

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* "Weigh solid pudding against empty praise." (*Pope*.) The Imperial Balancer seems to have placed both in one scale, and to have counterpoised them with some other commodity, which has made our offerings kick the beam.

These materials, with two short dictionaries of botanical terms, (in one of which the English is prefixed to the Latin, and in the other the Latin to the English,) and twelve plates, (many of them little more than copies, and none conspicuous for their excellence,) constitute the first volume.

We must not neglect this opportunity of pointing out to Dr. Hull's notice, the celebrated Willdenow's "*Grundriss der kräuterkunde*;" a work which stands in deservedly high estimation on the Continent, and of which we wish that he had availed himself more than he appears to have done. Its plates, among other recommendations, are particularly good; and that which contains specimens of the different colours suggests an idea which appears to deserve the imitation of English elementary authors.

The Second Volume is chiefly occupied by the characters of the British Genera; which, many readers will perhaps think, might well have been omitted, as having little reference to this work, and as being contained in almost every *Flora*: not to mention Linné's *Genera Plantarum*, with which very few botanists can be supposed to be unprovided. In one respect, however, this part will be serviceable: since, in the class *Cryptogamia*, Dr. Hull brings us acquainted with Dr. Smith's arrangement of the genera of dorsiferous ferns, and with the German distribution of *Musci*, *Algæ*, and *Fungi*. These divisions, especially in the *Lichens* and *Fungi*, appear to be carried to an unwarrantable length: but we still regret that this country so pertinaciously adheres to the old arrangement of Linné; and it would give us great pleasure if Dr. Smith, in the remaining volumes of his *Flora* *, could devise some method which, without entering into all the minutiæ of Hedwig and Persoon, might nevertheless fix the genera on the basis so universally established on the Continent, and enable the botanists on either side of the water to understand each other's meaning.

The definition of these Genera is followed by an account of the natural orders; and Giseke's map, explaining their vicinities, concludes a performance of which the utility, if not the necessity, to every botanist, is in our judgment indisputable:

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* We propose to give an account of the 1st and 2d vols. of this work, in our next Review.

however it may be their opinion that Dr. Hull has judged erroneously in publishing the major part of the contents of the second volume.

Art. X. *The Jurisdiction of the Lords House of Parliament,* considered according to ancient Records. By Lord Chief Justice Hale. To which is prefixed, by the Editor, Francis Hargrave, Esq. an introductory Preface, including a Narrative of the same Jurisdiction from the Accession of James the First. 4to. pp. 450. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1796.

The late appearance of the present article will not be attributed to any disrespect towards the learned editor of this publication, when it is recollected that we have on frequent occasions borne willing testimony to his merits; neither can it be ascribed to a disapprobation of the contents of the volume, when we sincerely acknowlege that we have seldom perused a work in which we have discovered so many proofs of patient investigation and accurate research. Causes of a very different description have occasioned a delay which we have much regretted, while it has been wholly out of our power to prevent it.

In a volume of law tracts which Mr. Hargrave presented to the world several years ago, with a promise (which, we lament to say, he has not been encouraged to fulfil) of continuing his labours in that branch, he introduced to the public notice some MSS. of Chief Justice Hale, which were extremely valuable. The present treatise by the same venerable author, and which was communicated to the editor by John Blagden Hale, Esq. (who is now the possessor of the Chief Justice's paternal seat and estate at Adderley in Gloucestershire,) is highly to be prized; both on account of the important and interesting nature of the subject which it discusses, and because it was acknowleged by its writer, who had in other treatises exercised his attention on the same subject, "*to be perfected.*"

This work may, with the greatest propriety, be considered as consisting of two grand divisions; the one, which is the preface, comprising 230 pages; and the other, the treatise by Lord Hale, comprehending 208 pages.—Of each of these we shall proceed to give a summary account; and the object of both parts of the publication we shall present to our readers in Mr. Hargrave's words:

'Before entering upon an account of the controversy, between the two houses of the English parliament, about judicature, it may be fit to explain the limits, within which the editor, for the most part, and as far as the complex nature of that controversy will permit, means to confine himself.

'There are various kinds of judicature exerciseable in parliament.—The lords have a judicature for their privileges; and since the union have had a judicature for controverted elections of the sixteen peers for Scotland.—The commons have a judicature for the privileges of their house, and also for determining matters relative to the election of their members.—There is a judicature for impeachment: and under it, on the one hand, the commons, as the great representative inquest of the nation, first find the crime, and afterwards, acting as prosecutors, endeavour to support their finding before the lords; whilst, on the other hand, the lords exercise the function both of judge and jury, in trial of the cause and in deciding upon it.—Further, there is a judicature for the trials of peers, by the lords, in and out of parliament.—There is also a kind of judicature exercised by the lords in parliament, over claims of peerage and offices of honour, under references from the crown.

'But the narrative, the editor means to offer, is not with a particular view to these several kinds of judicature; for his object is chiefly applicable and restricted to the controversy between the two houses of parliament,—about the exercise of an *original* jurisdiction by the lords in *civil* causes,—about the exercise of an *appellant* jurisdiction by the lords in the causes of *equity*, on a petition to themselves, and not as upon a writ of error, but without commission or delegation of any kind from the crown, - about the claim to extend such original and appellant jurisdiction to all causes, whether temporal or ecclesiastical, maritime or military, which the lords shall please to undertake,—about the claim to a jurisdiction thus vast and comprehensive, under the supposition of a *primitive* and *inherent* right in the lords, attached to their order by the law and constitution of the kingdom,—and about the exercise of such original and appellant jurisdiction by the lords singly, as being in themselves, without any participation either of the king or the house of commons, the supreme and *dernier* resort.

'Such is the nature of the controversy, to which lord Hale's following Treatise chiefly applies, and of which therefore it is now intended to give a general account.

'This great controversy, about original and appellant judicature in parliament, did not regularly begin till some few years after the restoration. But several things, which connect with and may illustrate the subject, and some of which were not wholly unmixed with controversy, occurred previously; and in respect of them it may be convenient to go back as far as the accession of James the First to the crown of England, and in some degree to look back even to a still earlier time.'

In this narrative, which is replete with historical information of a very interesting nature, it appears that the Lords, in the third parliament of Charles I. which was memorable for passing the Petition of Rights, made great advances towards fixing in themselves an *universal* jurisdiction, both *original* and *appellant*, over causes between party and party; the orders of the house in this respect extending to spiritual courts as well temporal. The two cases of *Dr. Mainwaring, and the Banbury Rioters*, which occurred in this parliament, shew that the Lords had assumed an original jurisdiction over misdemeanours unconnected with privileges or impeachment. It is observable, at the same time, that no *direct* precedent will be found in this period, of express petition of appeal from a decree in equity, with such a *full hearing* of the cause by the Lords, and such a *full order* expressly affirming or reversing, as to be a complete and unequivocal exercise of equitable appellant jurisdiction by the Lords themselves. The reflections which Mr. Hargrave makes on the sixth and last parliament called by the unfortunate Charles, which was usually denominated the *Long* Parliament, are candid, judicious, and moderate; and the account which he gives of Colonel John Lilburne (in a note, p. lxi.) is curious and interesting in no common degree. Of this extraordinary man, 'the fiery ebullitions of whose religious and political enthusiasm were ever involving him in state-prosecutions, and the invincibleness of whose courage enabled him to triumph under the consequences of them,' the best narrative, according to Mr. Hargrave, is to be found in the old *Biographia Britannica.*—At the beginning of the Long Parliament, the Lords, on occasion of petitions presented to them, exercised both original and appellant jurisdiction, as well in causes of equity as of law; extending their orders even to the punishment of misdemeanours, and to the awarding of damages; and thus they arbitrarily encroached on and controuled the ordinary jurisdictions of the kingdom, and invaded the functions both of judges and juries. No conclusive inference, however, can be drawn with respect to the proper and constitutional extent of their judicature, from proceedings which took place during a period of such excess.

In the whole account of that variable and inconsistent character, Mr. Prynne, the reader will discover much to amuse and to inform.—We shall transcribe a note, in which the editor successfully attempts to rescue the enlightened author from an unfounded censure by Roger North:

'Lord Hale was not over democratically inclined, as his rash censurer Mr. Roger North supposes; but on the contrary so inflexible in his attachment to the monarchical part of our constitution, that not only in his History of the Pleas of the Crown, but in his unpublished collections of law on the Rights of the Crown in his own handwriting, there are passages, which, if they have a fault, are open to remark on that very account. Indeed both the enemies and friends of the Revolution seem to have been fully aware of this: for the former have appealed to the authority of his opinions against its principles, and the latter have thought it necessary to observe upon certain parts of his writings concerning the hereditary succession of the crown of England. See " The Hereditary Right of the Crown of England Asserted," 128. 179. & 221. and the last Discourse in Judge Forster's Crown Law. But whatever might be the extent of lord Hale's prejudices in this respect, his mind was too philosophically expanded, not to see, that the consent or agreement of the people was at least a most desirable source of political power; and that being founded upon such a basis, government becomes guarded by the sacredness of moral obligation. The following extract, from the first chapter of his unpublished manuscript intitled PREPARATORY NOTES TOUCHING THE RIGHTS OF THE CROWN, will, it is conceived, warrant this assertion.

" The right of political government may be considered under a double notion.—1. Before it is settled, or *in fieri.*—2. After it is settled, or *in facto esse.*

" 1. Before it is settled.—It is clear, that no form of government, nor any government at all, can challenge any right but by positive institution. Man, though he be born *subjicibilis* to man, yet *jure naturæ* he is subject to none in a politic consideration. It is true, the desire to perpetuate and preserve his own being, and profit it by communion, inclines him to society, and consequently to government and subjection as the bond. But till he subject himself he is naturally free. Therefore much less can any form of government challenge a natural right. It is true one form of government may be better in itself. Yet all are but of positive or introduced original.

" 2. After it is settled.—Though natural right or justice be not the original of any government; yet when a government is once established, the same natural justice, that requires every man to keep his contract or agreement, binds the society wherein such government is settled, and the members thereof, to observe that agreement whereby the government stands so settled."

' From this extract, it appears how widely lord Hale differed from Prynne on the principles of government. It was the wisdom of lord Hale to render political submission a dignified offering of rational attachment, and the conscientious performance of a moral duty. It was the policy of Prynne to extort such submission as a servile tribute from bigotted ignorance.'

During the continuance of the convention-parliament, the Lords acted as if there were an unbounded jurisdiction inherent in the peerage; and as if their house were a forum for all descriptions of causes, without any other limitation than such as their own choice and moderation might suggest:—but the time was fast approaching when this question of judicature was to undergo a serious discussion; for in the second parliament of King Charles II. (and which with the greatest propriety might be called the *Second Long* Parliament, since it had sixteen different sessions, and continued nearly eighteen years,) several disputes on this subject took place between the Lords and the Commons. Besides the cases of *Fitton* and *Carr*, which involved some questions relative to this topic of parliamentary judicature, and which appear to be the earliest instances of direct petition of complaint to the Commons against the Lords, the celebrated case of *Skinner* against the *East India Company* occurred at this period. On the subject of this remarkable transaction, Mr. H. observes;

'Upon the present occasion it is fit, that the nature of this case and of the proceedings upon it should be well understood; for it involved a number of great points relative to the judicature of the house of peers. It directly involved the question, whether by our law and constitution the house of peers inherently and in right of their order is invested with *original* jurisdiction over *civil* causes between party and party; the question, whether the king, by recommendation of a business to the peers, or by any other species of *royal delegation*, could supply any defect which in this respect there might be in their power; and whether the house of peers could *without a jury assess damages;* and whether also it was competent to the lords to impose *fines* for breach of privilege, and to award imprisonment till payment. Collaterally and incidentally, the case involved the pretension of the house of lords singly to an *original* jurisdiction over *crimes* unconnected with the privileges of the peerage, or rather the whole compass of their judicative powers. But stating the case properly is not quite so easy, as may be expected: because the printed journals both of lords and commons, for a reason which will be presently explained, are almost a blank as to the proceedings of the two houses upon this case. However there are sources sufficient to supply this chasm of the printed journals; and from those sources, aided by the printed parliamentary debates, particularly those by Mr. Grey, who was a member of the commons at the time, it shall be attempted to relate the case from beginning to end.'

The whole account of this contest is curious and interesting; and while its termination was honourable to the Commons, it was so injurious to the claim of the Lords to an *original* jurisdiction, that the exercise of that claim in *civil* causes has ever since been relinquished by them. This dispute was compromised by the King's offer of his mediation between the two houses. His Majesty's proposal, which was readily accepted by both, was that he should "give present order to erase all records and entries of this matter in the council-books and in the exchequer, and that the two houses should do the like; so that no memory might remain of the dispute."—In this part of his work, Mr. Hargrave notices a mistake of Mr. Hume in his history, who says, "that the King prevailed with the Peers to accept of the expedient *proposed by the Commons:*"—but the King's speech, the editor observes, 'entered in the journal of the Commons, sufficiently proves *him* to have been the *proposer* to both houses.'

The question of *appellant* jurisdiction over equity, belonging to the Lords, was for some time strongly disputed by the

habent J. N. et in textu R. sed hic θρεφθῆναι *pro* v. *l. Duo MSS. Herodoti II.* 81. ταφῆναι *pro* θαφθῆναι. *Recte, igitur,* ἀπαλλαχθεὶς *ex pluribus MSS. reposuit Valckenærius, sed successu paullo confidentior factus, e Tragicorum reliquiis infelicem illum aoristum extirpare conatur. Et hoc quidem per metrum fieri potest in Æschyli Agam.* 344. *et Sophoclis Antig.* 428. (422.) *quid autem faciet Æschyli Prom.* 749. ἀπηλλάγην; κρεῖσσον γὰρ εἰς ἅπαξ θανεῖν. *Male etiam affirmat, ne semel quidem* ἀπαλλαγεὶς *aut* ἀπαλλαγῆναι *apud Nostrum inveniri, cum* ἀπηλλάγης *exstet in Androm.* 593. *quanquam et illud sine metri jactura mutari poterat. Sed quomodo factum est, ut duo loca hujus ipsius fabulæ* 601. 1424. *prætervidérit?*'

V. 1150. Ταῖς δ' ἑβδόμαις ———

'1150. ταῖς δ' ἑβδόμαις. *De septem Thebarum portis, quinque præcipui auctores, Æschylus, Euripides, Apollodorus, Pausanias, Statius,* (*Hygini enim nullam rationem habemus*) *non omnino eadem tradunt. Maxima est in Apollodoro difficultas, qui inter Ogygias portas et Oncaïdas diserte distinguit. Oncaïdas et Ogygias easdem portas vocari auctor est Hesychius.* Ὄγκας Ἀθήνας. τὰς Ὠγυγίας πύλας λέγει. *Oncaïdas memorat Æschylus, non Ogygias; Ogygias, non Oncaïdas Euripides, Pausanias, Statius. Quas omittit Apollodorus, Neïtas, ceteri omnes habent. Quid si ponamus Apollodorum scripsisse primo* τὰς Ὠγυγίας ἢ Ὀγκαΐδας, *deinde* τὰς Νηΐτας *suo loco, sed* Ὀγκαΐδας *omissum postea in margine repositum, sede sua alterum illud expulisse. Porro Hebdomæ non sunt proprium portarum nomen, sed Æschylus et Euripides, sex portis jam nomine designatis, ultimas commemorare supersederunt. Scholii, quod supra citavi ad* 1148, *reliqua sunt hæc:* τινὲς δὲ φασὶ τὰς ἑβδόμους πύλας τῆς Βοιωτίας καλεῖσθαι, ἀπὸ Βοιωτοῦ, τοῦ Ποσειδῶνος καὶ τῆς σοφῆς Μελανίππης ἀφ' οὗ πᾶσα ἡ Βοιωτία ἐκλήθη. *Lege* τὰς ἑβδόμας πύλας Βοιωτίας καλεῖσθαι. *His positis, portarum nomina sic distribuo.* 1. Προιτίδες. 2. Ἠλέκτραι. 3. Νηΐται. 4. Ὀγκαΐδες ἢ Ὠγύγιαι. 5. Βοῤῥαῖαι ἢ Ὕψισται ἢ Βοιωτιαί. 6. Ὁμολωΐδες. 7. Κρηναῖαι ἢ Διρκαῖαι.'

V. 1373. πῶς καὶ πέπρακται διπτύχων παίδων φόνος;

'1373. καὶ πῶς *Edd. omnes ante Valckenærium, et sic K. R. fortasse et Leid. sec.* πῶς δὲ *Flor. unde edidit Valckenærius,* πῶς δή. *Sed glossa est istud* δὲ, *ut liquet e C. ubi superscriptum est. Ceteri codices magno numero,* πῶς καὶ, *Bodleiani, C. Cant. D. J. I.. M. De membranis silet Brunckius, qui tacite edidit* πῶς δή. *Eo nomine* καὶ πῶς *vitiosa est lectio, quod objicientis fere est vel contradicentis, ut modo* 1367. *Sensus est,* Dic præterea quomodo. *Ita solet copula interrogativis* τίς, πῶς, ποῖ, ποῦ, ποῖος *postponi. Hec.* 519. πῶς καί νιν ἐξεπράξατ'; ἆρ' αἰδούμενοι; 1055. ποῖ καί με φυγᾷ πτώσσουσι μυχῶν; *Alc.* 846. ποῦ καί σφε θάπτει; *Aristoph. Pac.* 1288. τοῦ καί ποτ' εἶ; *Sophocl. Aj.* 1290. ποῖ βλέπων ποτ' αὐτὰ καί θροεῖς; *Trach.* 339. τί δ' ἐστὶ, τοῦ με τήνδ' ἐφίστασαι βάσιν; *Vertit Brunckius;* Quid est vero? cur meum sistis gradum? *Quem sensum vereor ut verba admittant. Prima Scholiorum editio,* τοῦ κε τήνδ' ἐφίστασαι (*non* ἐφίστασθαι, *ut Brunckius*) βάσιν. *Lege igitur et distingue,* τί δ' ἐστί; τοῦ καὶ τήνδ' ἐφίστασαι βάσιν; *Nonnunquam inter primam vocem et* καὶ *interponunt* δὲ, *ut Hec.* 1191. τίνος δὲ καὶ σπεύδων χάριν Πρόθυμος ἦσθα; *Androm.* 396. τί δέ με καὶ τεκεῖν ἐχρῆν; *Iph. A.* 1202. τίς δὲ καὶ προσβλέψεται Παίδων σ' ὅτων ἂν προθέμενος κτάνῃς τινά; *Sophocl. Antig.* 1314. ποίῳ δὲ κἀπελύσατ' ἐν φοναῖς τρόπῳ; *Atque hæc sufficient ad vindicandum Hippol.* 92. Οὐκ οἶδα· τοῦ δὲ καί μ' ἀνιστορεῖς πέρι; *Quem imperite sollicitavit Brunckius.*'

this *Consilium Regis Ordinarium*, its power and jurisdiction, its relation to or conjunction with the courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Exchequer, Common Pleas, and Privy Seal, and its habitude and relation to the Lords' House in Parliament, and their conjunction therewith.—In examining the Lords' claim to an *original* jurisdiction, the author makes several judicious observations, and employs the *argumentum ab inconvenienti* very strongly against its existence:

> ' Certainly the original cognizance of causes in the lords house was always highly incongruous and prejudicial to the people in many respects: as—1. By reason of the great attendance that it required, in as much as necessarily these causes and their hearing must give way to weightier matters.—2. In respect that parliaments were of no long continuance anciently, and many times prorogued or dissolved before such causes could be heard, and then the suitor and defendant lost their labour and expence in attendance.—3. The ancient course even in parliament was, if a matter were put in issue, that either commissions issued out of chancery to try the point returnable thither, or else the record was sent into the king's bench to try, who also gave judgment; so that they were fain to go through several courts before they could come to a conclusion of the cause. I never read of any trial in capital causes by a jury at the lords bar, but only in the case of Thomas lord Berclay, 4 *E.* 3. for the death of *E.* 2. *de quo infra.* —4. The modern course of trial by examination of witnesses, either *vivâ voce* or by commission, is ten times worse, because the lords are thereby judges of fact as well as of law; and whereas if a jury give a false verdict an attaint lies, here he is remediless if the lords make a wrong collection or conclusion upon witnesses, and the party has lost that trial that the law of the land and *Magna Charta* so much assert, the *legale judicium parium suorum.*—5. But that, which is more than all the rest, the lords are great persons; and if they give judgment against law, there is no appeal to any but themselves. If there be an appeal to the house of commons, the lords will not allow it: if to both houses, the same must pass through the house of lords, who will be doubtless partial to their own judgment once given: if the appeal be to another parliament, it is true the lords may reverse the judgment given by themselves; but who can expect they will do it?
>
> ' The wisdom of the laws of England is remarkable in these particulars.—1. That although the judges are constituted by the king and chosen out of learned men knowing in the laws; yet they are not nobles, nor peers of parliament, or such as would be too great to be called in question for corruption, or their judgments to be examined if there be cause.—2. That the ordinary courts of justice are still under the check of a review by writ of error, if there be cause: the judgments in the common pleas examinable in the king's bench, those for the most part in the exchequer chamber, those in the exchequer before the chancellor and treasurer, and all of them either mediately or immediately in the court of parliament.

'But to begin with an original petition in the lords house, which is now simply the court of the last resort for appeals, is preposterous and infinitely prejudicial to the people.

'So that if we may judge what is unlawful by what is highly inconvenient, we have no reason to think such a kind of jurisdiction in original suits was lodged in the lords house.'

The nature of the proceedings on writs of error and appeals, the courts from which and the time when the records are removed, and the court of parliament into which records were removed, examined, and determined, are separately and at considerable length discussed; and much light is thrown on this branch of our law.—The author afterward proceeds to the consideration of the *appellant* jurisdiction claimed by the Lords over decrees in equity; and, as a preliminary to this part of his argument, he thus mentions those modes of rectifying erroneous decrees which are not relative to parliament, and touching which there is no colour of controversy:

'And the methods are three.

'1. By a *rehearing* of the cause by the chancellor himself, which he may do, and if he see cause may alter his decree. But this must be before the decree be enrolled of record; for when it is signed and enrolled by the stile of that court it cannot be reheard.

'2. By *bill of review* in the same court. And this is after the decree signed and enrolled. But this is somewhat a strait-laced remedy. For they neither examine, nor read the proofs in the cause, whether they warrant the decree; neither is this bill of review allowed, unless the decree be performed, if it concern payment of money. But all the matters, that maintain such a bill of review, must be some error appearing in the body of the decree or in the proceedings of record, or some matter *ex post facto*, which hath happened since the cause, or come newly to be discovered, which, had it been known and alledged and due proof thereof made upon the hearing, would probably have suspended or altered or annulled the decree.

'3. By *appeal to the king*, by petition, setting forth the matter of the decree, the unwarrantableness of the decree by the proofs in the case, the untruth of the suggestions on the decree, and thereupon praying a rehearing of the cause either before the king himself or such commissioners as he shall assign by commission under the great seal to hear examine and determine the cause. And thereupon the king usually issues his commission under the great seal to some of his privy council and to some of the judges for this purpose, before whom the cause is to be heard *de novo* from the beginning, and to be affirmed or reversed as there is cause. And such commissions as these have sometimes issued; and the reason, why they have not issued oftener, is in respect of the great charge and delay in such commission, and the uncertainty of the success because of the great uncertainty and arbitrariness used in equitable proceedings. But that this is the regular and legal way of appealing from and reversal of decrees in chancery, we have not only the judgment of the lords themselves in the parliament of 21. *Jac.* in Mathew's case hereafter mentioned, but the resolution of all the judges, long before this question started, *Hill.* 13. *Jam. Roll's Rep.* 331. and *Bulstr.* in the case between Vawdry and Pannel, and *Mich.* 42 & 43 *Eliz.* in the case of the countess of Southampton against the earl of Worcester certified by the judges under all their hands.

'And whether the petition of appeal be made to the king in such case in parliament or out of parliament, such a commission may be thereupon issued; for it is the king's commission, that gives the jurisdiction in this case.

'Again, in parliament, if a parliamentary petition of appeal be delivered to the king and answered by him or by his direction, the answer is of itself a commission according to the tenor of the indorsement, and gives as full a power to those to whom the hearing and determining of the complaint is referred, as if it were a commission under the great seal; and though this latter be more regular and formal, yet they are both equally effectual. And therefore if the petition be indorsed, *soit cette matiere oyée et terminée par les seigneurs spirituall et temporall, en parlement*, or *par les juges*, or by a select number of lords and judges, or by the *auditores querelarum*, it gives them a full commission for the determining thereof, as if it were by commission under the great seal: for the petition and the king's answer indorsed are a record; and by what before is shewed touching writs of error, a petition of error thus indorsed is as full a commission to the lords in parliament to examine and reverse or affirm a judgment at law, as if it had been done by writ, for in those cases the king's answer is an effectual commission according to the tenor of it.

'And therefore if in parliament there be a petition of appeal against a decree in chancery, and the king indorses the petition, *soit mande as seigneurs spirituall et temporall*, or to a select number thereof, *a oyer et terminer cest appeale*, there is no question to be made, as I conceive, but that according to the tenor of endorsement there may be a proceeding in parliament to hear and determine *ex integro* the justice or injustice of such decree; for the king, that is the fountain of jurisdiction, hath hereby delegated the same by such his endorsement of the petition as effectually as if it were done by commission under the great seal.

'The true state therefore of this question is, whether the house of lords, by a kind of innate inherent jurisdiction, have power, without any such commission or delegation from the king, to receive appeals against decrees in chancery, and to hear and determine them upon a plenary hearing of the cause; or not.'

After having candidly and fully considered the arguments as well for as against this jurisdiction of the Lords, the author concludes this part of his work with the following observation:—'So that upon the whole matter, if the question be *de vero* or *de jure*, there is no such radical inherent jurisdiction in the House of Lords, without a special authority derived to

them,

m, either by the king's commission, or by indorsement of etition of review or reversal, to examine errors in decrees the Chancery.'

On the question *de bono*, Lord Hale is as adverse to this claim appellant jurisdiction by the Lords, as we find him to have n on the question *de vero* or *de jure*. After having stated arguments in favour of the claim, he urges with irresistible e his objections to those arguments; and he then considers at expedients may be adopted for the accommodation of difference, so as to preserve the just rights of the Crown, safety and security of the subject, and the honour and nity of parliament; each of them separately, and all of m collectively, objects of great importance The course ich he recommends is the following:

1. That the appointment of tryers of petitions, which is always e by the king the first day of a session, may not be a piece only name and formality, as it is now used; but that a select number the most judicious lords spiritual and temporal, and that not in excessive a number, together with the judges, be appointed, these to be commissionated under the great seal for that purpose, whom as occasion requires petitions for reversals of decrees may be rred. And the like commission for examining of judgments in s of error. Only the judges of that court, out of which the rd is removed, to be omitted in that commission; and only to present if occasion require to hear the reasons of their judgments, n error out of the exchequer chamber before the treasurer and ncellor.

2. That, according to the antient course, all petitions of reversals decrees in chancery preferred in parliament be directed to the g or the king and his council, and delivered to the receivers of tions; and the king and his council to be attended by the re- ers of petitions, and endorsements to be thereupon made accord- as the case shall require. *Soit cette petition bayle a tryers de peti- &c. a oyer et terminer solonc droit et raison; et eux, ou ascuns &c. d'eux, quorum &c.* And because it may not be determined hat session, then a special commission to the tryers, whereof some he *quorum* to examine and determine the errors in the decree; so in writs of error.'

The advantages of this mode of proceeding are thus de- ed:

This course,

1. Preserves the king's right as the fountain of jurisdiction: and the decrees are passed by the king's authority, so by the same hority they are avoided, if there be cause; and not by a kind of nitive superintendant inherent jurisdiction in the lords house; ch some may possibly think savours too much of an aristocracy, ing an appeal from the king to the lords by an inherent right of

a dernier resort, which seems not agreeable to the constitution of the English government.

'2. This method is most suitable to the method that the parliament hath chalked out in cases of a like nature, as any man that attentively reads the statute of 14. *Eliz. cap.* 5. for reformation of delays in judgments may easily observe.

'3. This method suits with the antient form of reversal of judgments in the lords house; which, as hath been at large shewn, was antiently by a select number of lords thereunto appointed by the king, and no bill or writ of error in parliament without a previous petition to the king and a bill signed for its allowance.

'4. This prevents the many mischiefs and inconveniences, that happen upon promiscuous determining of such causes, by the supernumerary vote possibly of one person, and he possibly not so competent a judge in such cases.

'5. This preserves a handsome decorum and dignity in the lords house, wherein some of their members are always in commission upon this occasion.

'6. This is the means to have stability and firmness in proceedings. Men's decrees shall not be broken, nor reversed, without just cause, and due examination by persons experienced and learned in matters of this nature; for the judges here are not only to be assistants to advise, but commissioners to assent or disassent, as they are by the statute of 14. *E.* 3. *cap.* 5.

'7. This is a proceeding regular, consonant to law and the true interest of justice; and such as even the lords themselves, in the parliament of 2. *Jacobi*, owned as the safe and regular method of proceeding for reversal of decrees in equity.

'8. This is a great means, as on the one hand, to keep the chancellor or keeper and judges under a just care that their decrees and judgments be well grounded: for there is a due and regular method of appeal: so on the other hand is a good security provided for such as have now run, it may be, a long and expensive suit for the obtaining of a decree of judgment (and possibly all the substance of himself and his family or some purchaser for valuable consideration are laid upon it) that it shall not be lightly or loosely thrown off by persons unacquainted with proceedings of this nature, and yea and possibly by the vote of such as never heard the cause (if proxies be allowed, which I know not whether they are or not) or possibly by the vote of one that never observed or heard one half of the cause, or if he heard it yet never heard a cause before.

'This method of proceeding, as well in writs of error upon judgments as in appeals from decrees, would render the proceedings of the lords much more regular and orderly, much more agreeable to the laws of the kingdom and the king's just right, much more safe for the people and consonant to the true and antient stile and order of parliament, with less expence. And businesses of this nature would receive their determination before the commissioners, though the parliament should be prorogued adjourned or dissolved, without forcing the complainant to begin all anew.'

The volume concludes with a fair statement, and an able and convincing refutation, of the doctrines and arguments of the author's opponents; pointing out many absurdities, as well as inconveniencies, which would necessarily result from the Lords' House of Parliament being invested with such high judicatory powers as they claimed.

We have now endeavoured to present to our readers a view of the contents of this admirable performance: but to enable them to form a more competent opinion of the merits of the Chief Justice's Treatise, we shall extract the sentiments of the learned editor, which alone may be considered as an excellent review of the judge's production:

'One of the proud claims on behalf of the house of lords was, that it was competent to them, whenever they thought fit, to exercise an *original* jurisdiction in *civil* cases.—But lord Hale denied the right of the lords to such a jurisdiction. He was followed in that opinion in his lifetime by the vote of the house of commons in the great case of Skinner against the East India Company; and after his death he was again followed by the commons in the case of Mr. Bathurst in a manner which shewed that the commons would no more suffer such a jurisdiction indirectly, than they would submit to it directly.—The result is, that the lords have wholly ceased to enforce this claim for almost a century.

'Another claim for the lords was to an *original* jurisdiction over *crimes* without impeachment by the commons.—But this also was positively denied by lord Hale: and not only did the proceedings of the commons in the cases of Skinner and of Mr. Bathurst include a decided condemnation of this claim; but the judges themselves came forward solemnly and successfully in the case of Bridgman against Holt, to protest against it.—Here again also the result has been with lord Hale; for nearly a century has now passed without an attempt at the exercise.

'It was a further claim for the lords, that they have an *appellant* jurisdiction over causes in *equity* on *petition to themselves*.—Lord Hale firmly and unequivocally controverted this claim. He also lived just long enough to see his opinion adopted by a vote of the house of commons. Afterwards indeed the blow was not followed up: and in this instance the lords finally prevailed; and now their exercise of this branch of jurisdiction stands, not only upon the foundation of a quiet possession ever since the close of the Ailesbury case in 1704-5, but upon the still firmer foundation of such an acquiescence by both the crown and commons as would, if deeply looked into, most probably be found to amount to legislative recognition.—In this great point therefore, it must be confessed, that lord Hale's opinion has miscarried, and that the house of lords have prevailed over his opinion. But the victory was not till after his death; and it was gained under such circumstances, as shew, that it was rather from the forbearance of the house of commons and from their jealousy of the crown, than from any error in the strict consitutional principles upon which lord Hale proceeded.

'Another claim for the lords was, that they were entitled to an appellate jurisdiction over *all courts* and *all causes.*—Lord Hale opposed himself to the grandeur of this claim.—The result is with him and against the lords: for they meddle not either with appeals *ecclesiastical*, with appeals *maritime*, or with appeals in *prize* causes. *Colonial* appeals both at *law* and in *equity* have also been suffered to fall into other hands; namely, the hands of the *privy council.* Nay, what exceedingly in point of precedent tends to fortify the principle of lord Hale's opinion against the claim of the house of lords is, that it would not be an easy task to bottom such exercise of appellant jurisdiction by the privy council, otherwise than upon that principle of commissionary delegation of the crown, which lord Hale states to be the very essence of the appellant judicature of the lords over the common-law courts under writs of error.

'It was also stated as a claim of the lords, that their judicative power is *primitive* and *inherent*, as being by our constitution annexed to the peerage.—Lord Hale absolutely refused to assent to this grand pretension.—Here again he has prevailed: for the conduct of the lords themselves is enough to shew, that his opinion is at least operative and effective; they neither declining to act as commissionated by writs of error under the great seal, nor opposing the privy council exercising commissionary appellant judicature under a less solemn delegation of royal authority.

'It was a further claim for the lords, that they are the *supreme* jurisdiction, the *last resort;* and that they have this immeasurable power as constitutionally authorized to exercise the *judicature of parliament singly* and *solely.*—Against this pretension lord Hale, notwithstanding all the calm of his disciplined mind, was even indignant, as manifestly appears in the last chapter of the following treatise. That energetic chapter was probably composed only a few months before the decease of lord Hale. It may therefore be considered as the zealous suffrage of his dying breath against this sovereign claim. He even treats it, as tending to swallow up both king and commons in the abyss of aristocracy, and to effectuate the most essential change in the English constitution.—But here lord Hale, or rather the constitution itself, is in effect once more victorious. For the time previous to lord Hale's decease, the following treatise alone, exclusive of his other writings still only in manuscript, will sufficiently bear testimony. For the time subsequent, without reckoning the continual and permanent *habit of the commons in having a standing committee for courts of justice*, there is such a series of exercise of the judicature of parliament by statute, both appellately in reversing erroneous judgments and originally in attainting, as renders the lords themselves witnesses against their own pretension.

'Upon this comparison of lord Hale's opinions with the judicative claims for the house of lords, it is scarce too much to say, that the victory is wholly on his side, and wholly on the side of the real constitution, except in the single instance of the appellant jurisdiction over decrees in equity; and that in the only instance, in which his opinion can be said to have been subdued, it has been so rather from jealousy of the crown, in favor of whose right the opinion operated, than from any error in the opinion itself. In other words, the sober temperate and strictly constitutional doctrines of the venerable and consistent lord Hale, have gained a compleat victory over the rash bigotted extravagant and encroaching eccentricities of the hasty and inconsistent Mr. Prynne, and over his magnificent claims for the lords, in all the grand points of *originality appellancy universality supremacy* and *soleness*, with scarce one exception; that is, in all of them, except part of one, wholly and entirely, and substantially even in the single point excepted.'

Before we conclude this article, we must take notice of a position in Lord Hale's Treatise, which is controverted in the fourth volume of Mr. Hatsell's Precedents. The Judge says:

'And therefore I take it, that the granting or continuing of a *supersedeas* by the lords house, depending a writ of error, until the next parliament, as it hath been sometimes done, viz. *rot. parl.* 4 *H.*4. *n.* 26. in the case of the dean and chapter of Litchfield, *rot. parl.* 11. *H.* 6. *n.* 40. in the case of Isabel Beauchamp, was not consonant to law. For it would be an intolerable delay of justice; for no parliament possibly would be summoned in seven years; and it were very unreasonable, that the plaintiff's execution upon a judgment obtained should be so long delayed: and the rather because error in judgments is not presumed, till it be declared and adjudged by the court where a writ of error is depending.'

On this assertion, Mr. Hatsell observes, after having cited several precedents, that the "instances, however, in which the practice has been contrary to this doctrine of Sir Matthew Hale, are from their antiquity, and number, more than sufficient to decide that his opinion upon this point is not consonant to law."

We must now finish our account of this very instructive volume: but not without assuring its very learned and judicious editor that we feel much indebted to him, for the labour and intelligence which he has bestowed in illustrating his author; and sincerely recommending to his attention the still unpublished works of this great luminary of the law.

ART. XI. *The History of the Thirty Years War in Germany.* Translated from the original German of Frederic Schiller, Aulic Counsellor, and Professor of Philosophy at Jena. By Captain Blaquiere, of the Royal Irish Artillery. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 340 in each. 12s. Boards. Miller. 1799.

THE preface to this History comes from the admired pen of Wieland, and informs us that

> ' No work has for a considerable time appeared in Germany which has been read with more ardent and universal applause than the first part of the History of the Thirty Years War, by which the Aulic Counsellor Schiller has given the Historic Calendar for the Ladies in 1791, a value of which no periodical publication of that nature can hitherto boast.
>
> ' Although this work was originally destined for the fair sex, I will venture to say, without exaggeration, that it has had as many readers as there are persons of any pretension to taste in the compass of our literature. Written by an author whose earlier essays were in dramatic composition, and who now, for the first time, entered the immediate field of the historic muse, he exceeded the expectations formed of his riper years from the merit of his earlier productions. The work before us has already surpassed all that our language could boast of in this department of literature; and it must naturally excite in all to whom the glory of their country is not indifferent, a desire that a writer should appear who could display in this new career talents capable of gaining him a rank with a Hume, a Robertson, or a Gibbon; and devote them, if not altogether, at least principally, to the history of his native country.'

The Thirty Years' War constitutes a grand subject for the pen of such a writer as Schiller; of whose merits we are sensible, though we cannot speak of him in the terms used by Wieland. It presents varied interests to be traced, complicated movements to be described, different principles of action to be ascertained, important characters to be pourtrayed, and interesting scenes to be sketched. Expectation has seldom risen higher in our minds than on the present occasion, and sorry we are to say that rarely has it been more disappointed.—We regret the necessity which we feel for giving so unfavourable a judgment of this translation, not only because of the loss which the public sustains, but also on account of the modesty with which Captain Blaquiere pleads for indulgence to ' the performance of a young and inexperienced writer.'

In making quotations to prove the justice of the opinion that we have given, we shall select some of those passages in which the fire of Schiller is most to be expected, and in which a translator of genius could scarcely fail to be just and energetic.

From the following sentences, the intelligent reader will gain some idea of the conceptions of the German author:

> ' But several circumstances combined to incline the House of Austria to support popery; Spain and Italy, from whence the power of Austria derived its principal support, yielded to Rome that blind obedience which had distinguished the Spaniards since the Gothic ages. The smallest inclination to the obnoxious tenets of Luther and Calvin would have irrecoverably lost to the government of Spain the attachment of its subjects. A Spanish king had no alternative between abdication and orthodoxy. He laboured under similar diffi-

culties in his Italian dominions, where he was obliged to treat his subjects with still greater indulgence, as they were not only more impatient of a foreign yoke, but also possessed easier means of throwing it off. To this were added the claims of France on those countries, and the near residence of the Pope; motives sufficient to prevent him from declaring himself for a party which professed the annihilation of popery, and which bound him to exert himself with the most active zeal for the old religion.'—

'The German line of the House of Austria appeared to be more free; but though many of those obstacles were removed, it was still bound by others. The possession of the Imperial throne by a heretic was impossible, (for how could an apostate from the church possess that dignity?) and bound the successors of Ferdinand I. to popery. Ferdinand himself was conscientiously attached to the church; the German princes of the House of Austria were besides not sufficiently powerful to dispense with the assistance of Spain, from all hope of which they excluded themselves by favouring the new doctrines: besides, their dignity required them to maintain the political system of the Empire, that confirmed their own power, which the Protestants endeavoured to abridge. If, besides, we consider the coldness of the Protestants towards the wants of the Emperor, and towards the common dangers of the Empire, their exorbitant usurpations on the temporalities of the church, and their violence when they felt their own strength, we can easily perceive the grounds upon which the Emperor was attached to popery, and the motives on which he united his own interests with those of the Catholic religion.'

The Thirty Years' War, called also the war of religion, is not without many points of resemblance to the contest in which Europe is now engaged. The language of the defender of antient institutions, *mutatis mutandis*, differs little from that which, in the present day, has resounded so often in our ears. It was language used by Ferdinand Archduke of Gratz, afterward Emperor, so celebrated for his bigotry, for his prudence, for his perseverance, for his errors, for his various fortune, and for the troubles of his reign.

'Ferdinand heard the voice of a monk as he would that of Heaven. "*Nothing on earth,*" writes his own confessor, "*was more sacred in his eyes than the priesthood.*"—"*Did it happen,*" was he oft heard to say, "*that an angel from heaven and a clergyman were to meet him at the same time and place, the clergyman should receive his first, and the angel the second act of his obeisance.*"

He afterward had occasion to abate of this reverence, when he discovered, how much he had been duped by the celebrated Father Joseph. The General Count Wallenstein being obnoxious to the Electors, the artful monk induced the Emperor to dismiss the General, in order that his son Ferdinand might be elected king of the Romans: but when Father Joseph had obtained the disgrace of the General, he took effectual care to defeat the election; on which occasion the Emperor was heard to say, " A wicked Capucin has disarmed me by his rosary, and enclosed no less than six Electors in his Cowl."

Of the resemblance of former days to these, as just noted, the subsequent paragraph affords instances:

' Disobedience, violence, and insurrection, it was said, were always connected with Protestantism. Every privilege which the states had obtained from the present and former Emperors had no other effect than that of increasing their demands. Their attempts were manifestly directed against government, and the heretics proceeded from one step to another to the last act of violence: their next attack would be against the person of the Emperor. What had hitherto been suffered was only a just punishment for the lenity with which they had been treated; their present rebellion was a divine work to fulfil the measure of their crimes, and exhaust the patience of their rulers. *Such an enemy was to be treated with only in arms.* Peace was to be established only by the total abolition of their dangerous privileges:—it was in the ruin of this sect that the Catholics were to look for security. *The event of the war was truly doubtful, but inevitable ruin was the consequence of not engaging in it. The forfeiture of the rebel estates would defray the expences, and the example of executions would effectually terrify the other states.*'

Those who are accustomed to the works of Schiller would scarcely recognize his pen in the passages in which the famous Wallenstein is represented, receiving the news of his disgrace; and in which his mode of living in retirement is described*:

' Wallenstein commanded an army of near one hundred thousand men, by whom he was adored, when the news of his dismissal was communicated to him. The greater part of the officers were his creatures, and a hint from him decided the fate of the common soldiers; his ambition was boundless, his pride insupportable, and his imperious spirit could not brook an injury; one moment was now to precipitate him from the height of power to the condition of a private man. To execute a similar sentence upon such a criminal, appeared to require an act no less than that by which it had been obtained; but precautions had been taken to select two of Wallenstein's most intimate friends, as the heralds of these bad tidings, who softened them as much as possible by the assurance of the continuation of the Emperor's favour.

' Wallenstein was already acquainted with the nature of their errand, when the Emperor's messengers made their appearance; he had time to collect himself, and his countenance showed calmness while his breast was torn by contending passions. But he had predetermined to yield implicit obedience. This resolution of the Emperor surprised him before circumstances were prepared for a bold step, and his preparations in a state of sufficient forwardness. His great estates were scattered over Bohemia and Moravia: by their confiscation the Emperor would destroy the nerves of his power. From time he expected satisfaction, and in this hope he was encouraged by the prophecies of an Italian astrologer, who led this otherwise intrepid spirit like a child. Seni had read in the stars that the career of his master was not yet ended, and that the sequel had prepared for him a brilliant fortune. It was indeed unnecessary to consult the stars in order to make it probable that an enemy such as Gustavus Adolphus would make the services of such a General as Wallenstein indispensable.

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* In our Review for October last, p. 227, we mentioned a translation of Schiller's Tragedy, founded on the History of this celebrated General.

"The Emperor is betrayed," said Wallenstein to the messengers: "I pity, but forgive him: it is evident that Bavaria domineers; I am sorry that he has so easily sacrificed me, but I will obey." The emissaries were dismissed with rich presents, and he besought the Emperor's further favour and protection in an humble letter. The murmurs of his army were universal upon hearing the dismissal of their general, and the greater part of his officers immediately quitted the Imperial service; several followed him to his estates in Bohemia and Moravia; others he attached by pensions, in order to command their services whenever opportunity offered.

'His intentions were by no means fixed on repose while he returned to a private station. In his solitude he was surrounded by a regal pomp which appeared to reproach his degradation; six gates led to his palace in Prague, and a hundred houses were demolished in order to clear the surrounding space. Similar palaces were built upon his numerous estates; gentlemen of the first families sought the honour of seeing him, and Imperial chamberlains were known to deliver up the golden key in order to exercise that duty under Wallenstein; he maintained sixty pages, who were instructed by the most able masters; his antechamber was protected by fifty life-guards; his table never consisted of less than a hundred covers, and his house-steward was a person of distinction; when he travelled, his suite and baggage were carried upon a hundred waggons, drawn by six and four horses; his court followed him in sixty coaches, attended by fifty led horses; the magnificence of his liveries, the splendour of his equipage, and the decorations of his apartments were in proportion; six barons and as many knights continually attended his person; twelve patroles went their rounds in his palace to prevent any disturbance; his busy genius required silence; the noise of coaches was not permitted near his residence, and the streets leading to it were often shut up with chains. His deportment was no less impenetrable than his access; dark, reserved, and profound, he was more sparing of his words, than his gifts, and the little that he spoke was uttered in unamiable accents; he never smiled, and the coldness of his temperature withstood all sensual gratifications. Ever occupied by the most extensive schemes of ambition, he rejected those idle dissipations in which others spend the best part of their time; a correspondence throughout Europe he managed himself, and the greater part of his letters were written by his own pen. He was a man of large stature, thin, of a yellow complexion, with red short hair, and small but penetrating eyes; his countenance displayed a forbidding seriousness, and the magnificence of his presents could alone retain the trembling crowd of his servants.

'It was in this stately darkness that Wallenstein awaited, not inactively, the return of his good fortune, and the hour of his revenge; the brilliant successes of Gustavus Adolphus soon gave him reason to expect its approach. He had abandoned none of his vast plans; the Emperor's ingratitude had absolved him from a burdensome duty; the splendour of his life, as a private man, betrayed the extent of his ambition; and bountiful even as a monarch, he seemed to regard as his own, the possessions which his hopes assigned him.'

After the capture of Mentz by the Swedes in 1631, literature sustained the following important loss:

'The King of Swden made a present of the Elector's library to his chancellor Oxenstern, who intended to have had it transported to the seminary of Westerah; but the vessel in which it was embarked for Sweden, foundered in the Baltic, and this irreparable treasure was lost.'

The terms on which the haughty Wallenstein agreed to resume the command of the Emperor's forces are too curious to be passed over.

'It was not without apprehension the minister beheld a writing, wherein the proudest of servants prescribed laws to the proudest of masters. But however little he depended upon the discretion of his friend, the extravagant contents of this writing exceeded his boldest expectations. Wallenstein required the unlimited command of all the German armies in the pay of Spain and of Austria, and the unconfined power of rewards and punishments; neither the King of Hungary nor the Emperor himself was to appear in the army, much less to exert any prerogative. The Emperor was to bestow no place, to confer no favour, to issue no letter of grace, without the consent of Wallenstein; all the confiscations in the Empire were exclusively to be at the latter's disposal. His ordinary pay was to be augmented by an Imperial estate, and another in the Empire; every Austrian province was, in case of necessity, to be opened to him if he stood in need of a retreat. He besides this demanded the dutchy of Mecklenburg upon the conclusion of the peace, as an equivalent for his being deprived of the command at any future period.'

With the following traits of the characters of the two great heroes in this memorable war, we shall conclude this article:

'It is certain that the King of Sweden's ambition laboured to attain an authority in the centre of the Empire, which was inconsistent with its liberty. His aim was the Imperial throne; a dignity which, possessed by him, and supported by his activity, might have caused much greater evils than were to be feared from the House of Austria. A Protestant by birth, and by principle an enemy to the Papists; born in a foreign country, and brought up in the maxims of absolute power, he was not so well calculated to maintain the liberty of the German states. The coercive homage which, among others, the city of Augsburg was obliged to render to the *Swedish crown*, betrayed the *conqueror*, not the *deliverer* of the Empire; and that city soon became prouder of the title of a royal residence, than that of a free Imperial city. His open designs upon the electorate of Mentz, which he in the commencement intended to bestow on the heir apparent of Brandenburg, as a dower with his daughter Christina, and afterwards to his chancellor and favourite Oxenstern, unequivocally declared his intentions towards the Empire. The Protestant princes in alliance with him had claims to his gratitude, which could only be satisfied at the expense of the Catholic chapters; and perhaps a plan had already been formed to divide the conquered provinces, after the manner of the barbarian hordes who had overthrown the Roman empire, among the Swedes and Germans in the army. In his conduct towards the Elector Palatine Frederic, he had entirely belied the character of a hero, and the sacred duty of a protector; the Palatine was completely in his possession, and honour required him to restore this province which was rescued from the Spaniards. But by a subtlety unworthy of a great mind, and which disgraces the character of a deliverer, he eluded this duty. He regarded the Palatinate as a conquest which he had made from the enemy, and thereby imagined he was entitled to treat it at his pleasure; he therefore surrendered it as a favour, and not as a debt, to the Elector, and that as a fief of Sweden, under conditions which diminished its value by one half, and rendered that prince a despicable dependant. One of the conditions to which he made the Elector subscribe was, "That after the war he should, like the other princes, contribute to maintain a part of the Swedish army." This lets us immediately conceive the fate which awaited Germany from the continuance of the King's success; a sudden death secured the Empire in its liberties, and saved his own reputation if he was not disposed to suffer the mortification of seeing his allies in arms against him, and losing all the fruits of his victories in a disadvantageous peace. Saxony seemed already disposed to forsake him; Denmark beheld his progress with jealousy; even France, the most potent of his allies, was alarmed at his growing greatness; and at the time when he passed the Lech, looked around for other powers by whose assistance his progress might be checked, and the balance of power maintained in Europe.'

After having related the assassination of Wallenstein, (see our Rev. for October already quoted,) the author proceeds:

' Thus did Wallenstein, at the age of fifty years, terminate his active and extraordinary life. Led away by ambition and the love of fame, he was still, with all his failings, an admirable and inimitable character, had he contained himself within bounds. The virtues of the ruler and the hero, prudence, justice, firmness, and courage, are the striking features of his character; but he wanted the softer virtues of humanity, which adorn the hero, and procure the ruler the esteem of mankind. Terror was the talisman with which he worked: excessive in his punishments as well as in his rewards, he knew how to keep the zeal of his followers continually expanded, and no general of ancient or modern times could boast of being obeyed with equal alaerity: obedience was of more real service to him than the soldier's courage, because he acted through its means. He kept his troops in practice by capricious orders, and rewarded a readiness to obey him, even in small matters, with profusion; he at one time issued an order that none but red sashes should be worn in the army. A captain of horse no sooner heard the order than he trampled his gold embroidered sash under foot; Wallenstein, on being informed of this circumstance, promoted him to the rank of colonel upon the spot. With all this appearance of caprice, he did not lose sight of the main object. The robberies of the troops in their friends' country had occasioned the severest orders against stragglers; and those who were detected in a theft were threatened to be punished with the halter. It happened that Wallenstein himself met a soldier, whom he commanded, without trial, to be taken up as a transgressor, and with his usual stern order of "*Hang the fellow*," condemned him to the gallows; the soldier pleaded innocence, but the decisive sentence was pronounced. "Hang, then, innocent," cried Wallenstein; "the guilty will tremble with more certainty." Preparations were already making to execute the sentence, when the soldier, who gave himself up for lost, formed the desperate resolution of not dying without revenge. He furiously fell upon his judge, but was soon disarmed by numbers before he could execute his design. "Now let him go," cried Wallenstein; "he will excite sufficient terror."

'His munificence was supported by an immense income, which was valued at three millions[*] annually, without reckoning the immoderate sums which he raised by contributions. His freedom of thinking and clearness of understanding placed him above the religious prejudices of his age, and the Jesuits could never forgive him for having seen through their system, and beheld nothing in the Pope but a Roman bishop.

'But as, since Samuel the prophet's days, no one came to a fortunate end who quarrelled with the church, Wallenstein also augmented its victims. Through monkish intrigues he lost at Ratisbon the command of the army, and at Egra his life; by the same acts he perhaps lost what is more, his honest reputation and his fame with posterity. For it must be candidly acknowledged that we have the history of this extraordinary man delivered to us by no means through impartial hands; and that Wallenstein's treason, and his designs upon the crown of Bohemia, rest less upon any positive proof than upon appearances of probability. We have not yet discovered the documents which might display the secret springs of his conduct with historic truth; and among all the actions ascribed to him openly, there is not one which could not proceed from an innocent source. Many of his most obnoxious measures showed an inclination for peace; others were to be excused by his just suspicion of the Emperor, and the blameless desire of maintaining his authority. It is true that his conduct towards the Elector of Bavaria bears the appearance of an ignoble revenge and implacable spirit; but none of his actions clearly convince us of his treason. When necesvity and despair at length drove him to merit the sentence which had fallen upon him when innocent, such a sentence cannot altogether be justified; it was his ruin that caused his rebellion, not rebellion his ruin. Unfortunate while living, he made a victorious party his enemy; equally so at his death, since the same party survived him, and wrote his history.'

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[*] ' Florins, no doubt. *Trans.*'

We owe apologies to the celebrated German author, for exhibiting him at such length to our readers through the guise of the present translation; which neither conveys an adequate idea of the original work, nor presents even correct English composition. Schiller's reputation, however, will not suffer by a conduct which we have been induced to adopt, contrary to our first intentions, by the uncommon interest of the subject, and its relation to our own awful and eventful times.—We cannot help stating it as our opinion, that a well executed translation of this history would be favorably received by the British public.

ART. XII. *Strictures on the Asiatic Establishments of Great Britain;* with a View to an Enquiry into the true Interests of the East India Company; comprehending the Rise and Progress of our Settlements in India, the Claim of individual Traders to a Participation of our Eastern Commerce, with an Elucidation of the Means by which those Claims may be made compatible with National Prosperity, and the Welfare of the Company; with a Chart, &c. By William Playfair, Author of the Political and Commercial Atlas, &c. 4to. pp. 222. 12s. Boards. Carpenter and Co. 1799.

THE intelligent author of this publication announces the necessity of considerable alterations in the mercantile system, which for so long a period has regulated the intercourse of this country with its eastern dependencies: he urges the propriety of imposing very important restrictions on the exclusive privileges hitherto enjoyed by the East India Company; and he contends for the propriety of admitting private merchants to a participation of the profits arising from this lucrative traffic.

In every alteration connected with India, it naturally strikes us that the manner in which it will affect the natives is the first and primary consideration: not only from motives of justice but from considerations of policy. The Indian jurisdiction is founded on opinion; the rulers bear no proportion to the subjects; and a conviction of the utility of submission is our only security for possession, and we may add our only just claim to it. In these ideas, we have the misfortune to differ from Mr. Playfair, who thinks that it were 'a vain, a false, and a flimsy assertion, to say, that in that government the

happiness

happiness of the inhabitants is the primary object;' and who maintains that, if the territorial possessions were separated from this country, we should incur no greater loss than 144,000l. per annum, under the present mode of management. It is not our business to refute this singular proposition: we shall content ourselves with remarking that it is founded on the assumption, that the trade would subsist to an equal extent without the territory; and that it would be capable of being conducted otherwise than by exportation of specie. How far either of these suppositions is probable, we leave those to decide whose knowlege of India is derived from a personal residence. Innovation, however, is never to be recommended for its own sake; and the present Directors of the East India Company, by their extensive foresight, rigid œconomy, and prudent management, have generally obtained the highest and the most deserved encomiums. Whence then arises the necessity for the changes so warmly urged? 'In viewing the laws and regulations (says Mr. P.) which regard the general monopoly and private trade, we find the latter under many unnecessary and improper trammels, and that foreigners have a preference that will in the end prove very destructive to this country.' The Company's exclusive privileges are, of necessity, binding only on his Majesty's subjects: but, in determining the injury sustained by the public in consequence of their exclusion, it were well to consider whether the advantages accruing to foreigners from this circumstance are not unavoidably limited to a certain and that no very considerable amount; and whether it be susceptible of great and indefinite extension.

'The real cause of jealousy (Mr. Playfair observes) originates in this, that as the greater part of the investments made in India are done with money that Europeans have gained there, and wish to remit home; and as the Company, adding a little of Asiatic despotism to the spirit of European monopoly, will not give bills on this country, either on advantageous terms or at convenient dates; Europeans, whether the servants of the Company or not, try to procure more favourable terms by other channels. From this circumstance, and the laws existing, it happens that a foreign house (a Dane or Swede) may trade to India with very little advance of capital.'

If this be the sole grievance, it is manifestly confined to a portion of the superfluous capital of Europeans resident in that country; limited in its amount, and capable of being remedied by the simple expedient of the Company granting bills on more favourable terms. This, however, is not the light in which the subject is viewed by Mr. Playfair.

'The commerce between Great Britain and Asia may be augmented ad infinitum, and it is only to be confined by impolitic regulations;

lations, and particularly, impolitic prohibitions. It is entirely the fault of the legislature, and not any want of enterprize in the people, that our trade with the East has not by this time been more than doubled; for it is certain that the inhabitants of that part of the world would be inclined to deal largely in the produce and manufactures of Great Britain, and where cash is wanting they have abundance of valuable staples to barter for our commodities *. If the mercantile genius of the nation had full scope, what commerce might not be carried on in the exports of slight woollens, hardware, guns, especially those of a small calibre, muskets, military stores, and ammunition.'

Those who are in the least conversant with the customs of the Orientals (and with them customs are immutable) know the impossibility of trading with them to any extent in woollens or hard ware. With regard to the implements of destruction, we must confess that we entertain very serious doubts how far it is consistent with morality, and with the religion which we profess, to supply innocent and distant nations with such pernicious inventions. We are not more satisfied that good policy would sanction the measure.

To conclude, Mr. Playfair proposes to invest the revenues of Bengal in the unmanufactured produce of that country, and to transport it to England. Has Mr. P. calculated how long that revenue is likely to endure, when the numberless persons, now employed in manufacturing the produce of their own fields, are stripped of the means of subsistence ?—We hope, however, that this consideration will engage the attention of his Majesty's ministers; that it will be remembered that the productions of Bengal are paid by its own revenue, and brought to this country; that, in addition to this loss, a constant drain of specie flows to the coast, to Bombay, and to China; that the welfare of our settlements is now supported solely by the strict administration of justice, and the security of private property; and that, whenever shoals of needy adventurers from Europe are permitted to settle in the interior, in order to cultivate sugar and indigo, the comfort of the innocent natives is at an end, their respect for the British character is gone, and our Indian dominion verges to its dissolution.

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* We think that the converse of the above proposition is ascertained: but let us examine the articles proposed to be furnished from this country.

Art. XIII. *Institutes of Natural Philosophy, Theoretical and Experimental.* By William Enfield, LL.D. 2d Edition, with Corrections and considerable Additions, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 450, and 11 Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

The original impression of this work was reviewed by us in the year 1786 (vol. lxxiv. p. 138.):—the present is augmented by several new propositions, relations of experiments, &c. and by an introduction to the first principles of chemistry.—Our remarks on the first edition were very few, because we regarded the volume not so much as containing original matter, as being a compilation of the useful and less abstruse parts of philosophy, arranged with considerable method, and discussed in a plain and perspicuous manner. This opinion of its merits continues nearly the same; and as we did not formerly withhold our criticism from motives of delicacy and regard to living reputation, so neither do we now restrain or soften it from respect to deceased worth: worth to which we would here and at all times bear ample testimony. As, however, we decline entering into a particular examination of the propositions, &c. our observations will relate to the general character of the publication; and our criticisms, which will be neither minute nor numerous, we trust will be temperate: severe they could not be, except, resolved on dissatisfaction, we had required in the performance more than its author intended to introduce,—or, making the demand of ignorance, we had asked for an union of inconsistent excellences.

Although the intention of Dr. Enfield might not be, as he expressed himself in his preface, to open a bye path to philosophy, yet his work is evidently calculated rather to recommend and insinuate truth by illustrations and examples, than to place it before the mind stript of all blandishments, such as it must appear according to the strict rules of severe reasoning. It is not indeed to be dissembled that Dr. E. was not eminently qualified to sound the depths of science, and to unravel its most perplexed parts. The variety of the objects of his pursuit dissipated his attention; the knowlege which he possessed was extensive and multifarious; and therefore the laws, which seem to confine within certain bounds all intellectual exertion and attainments, forbad that this knowlege should be in every instance exact and profound. Let it not be understood as our opinion, that there is an antecedent reason why the same individual should not possess at once accuracy and extent of information. Examples might be brought to controvert such an idea: but, looking to the common lot of humanity, we may justly treat universality of talents and acquirements as a chimera

mera engendered in the warm imagination of youth, and fostered by the vanity of sciolists. Whoever pursues knowlege, let his ambition be insatiate: but let his steps be uniformly and steadily directed towards the same point; cautious that his efforts are not diverted by the solicitations of extraneous objects, and dissipated by their frequency: otherwise, he must expect his moments of disappointment; and he will find, after fruitless trials, that a man who ranges extensively will want time to investigate closely, and to search deeply.

These considerations will not perhaps appear irrelevant: they may enable us to form a just estimate of the merit of the author of the present Institutes, may propitiate the severe critic, and may incline him to forgive partial inaccuracies in a book, when he looks to the sum of knowlege which its author possessed. They may also, perhaps, for a moment, restrain the triumphant sarcasms of that tribe of puny and indolent witlings who have never felt the toil of thought, yet pronounce their opinions with confidence, and, because they can censure an author, fancy themselves superior to him; if the work be familiar and illustrative, they complain that it is superficial; if deep, dull; if systematic, tediously formal.

Should one of these critics ask, purposely involving a condemnation in his question, what are the original inventions in the present Institutes, he may be told without hesitation that there are none: that the aim of the author was to treat known truths with method and perspicuity, to touch them *mellæo lepore;* to disentangle that which was intricate, to familiarize that which was abstruse, and to reduce high matters to the level of ordinary capacity. If his book teems not with new ideas and discoveries, there are nevertheless in it (to use the words of a great writer,) "*multa admista ex intimâ philosophiâ, multa dicta dialecticè, quæ quo facilius minus docti intelligerent, jucunditate quâdam ad legendum invitati.*"

Criticism allows no work to be perfect: the faults of the present are either to be attributed to the plan on which it is written, or are to be derived from the turn of the author's mind, and the nature of his attainments. The performance was intended as a popular one; and what is popular must to a certain extent be vague, what is familiar will be deficient in philosophic precision, and what is illustrative will want generality. Dr. Enfield was averse from deep disquisitions and metaphysical refinements*; he is found, therefore, frequently inclining

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* In the first Scholium, the author expresses his dislike of what he calls *metaphysical refinements;* and his reasonings on the divisibility of

ing to lax reasoning, and insisting on merely verbal propositions. He was fond of what are called obvious and sensible truths; he did not, therefore, give to the principles of science their due exactness and generality. He feared lest the reader should not understand him; and therefore he sometimes props on Induction and Examples, that which ought to have been established on the firm basis of mathematical demonstration.

We have endeavoured to place in a fair light the merits of this work: with the imperfections which it possesses, it yet has a strong claim on public notice; if it be not faultless, it is far above mediocrity.

To the present editor some notice is due.—The augmentations and additions * which he has given to the work may be inferred from his Advertisement:

> 'In laying before the public a new edition of "*The Institutes of Natural Philosophy, by the late Dr. Enfield,*" the Editor feels it incumbent on him to assure the Reader, that he has endeavoured, as far as was consistent with an elementary book, to avail himself of those advantages which the publication of new discoveries, and new works in science has afforded him; and although the limits of an advertisement will not allow him to particularize all the additions that will be found interwoven with the various parts of the volume, yet it may be expected that, in this place, some notice should be taken of the most material of them; and it is presumed that the following account will be deemed sufficient for the purpose.
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> 'In the first book, the propositions on the divisibility of matter, and the attraction of cohesion, are more fully discussed, and a very useful corollary is drawn from that on the attraction of capillary tubes. To the first and third propositions of the second book, considerable additions are subjoined; and in the second chapter is inserted a new proposition, from which, in conjunction with others, are deduced many corollaries and scholiums, connected with the remaining parts of the book †. Several examples are also given in the two first sections of the fifth chapter, which will be found useful to the young student as illustrative of the theory of falling bodies.
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> 'In the third book is given, independently of the additions noticed in the margin ‡, an important proposition on the specific gravities of bodies, with which are connected examples, and a table of the comparative weights of many of the most useful substances in nature.

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of matter, which follow, are disastrous consequences of this dislike. We wish that the Editor, instead of adding to what Dr. E. had done on this subject, had expunged all the *proofs* of the infinite divisibility of matter.

* In page 369, there appears to be an addition.

'† See Prop. A, (p. 14.) and Cors. Schols. &c. to Prop. 14, 17, 24, 26, 28, 30, 31, 36, 44, 46, 49, 52, 53, 54, 57, and 58.'

'‡ See additions to Prop. 3, 6, 12, 13, 18, A, (p. 103,) 50, and 55.'

Descriptions, accompanied with figures, are likewise given of the Pyrometer, Air-pump, Barometer, with its application to the measuring of altitudes, &c. Fahrenheit's Thermometer, with a Table of Heat; different kinds of Hygrometers, the Steam-engine, and the Hydrometer.

'The principal additions to the book of Optics, will be found connected with the propositions mentioned below *; in the course of which are introduced, Mr. Delaval's Theory of Colours; brief accounts of Dr. Blair's achromatic Lenses, and Dr. Herschel's grand Telescope.

'On the subject of Astronomy, are arranged under the different articles, several useful Tables, and the important discoveries of the illustrious Dr. Herschel, which have been carefully selected from the last twenty volumes of the Philosophical Transactions. The reference in the margin †, will direct the reader to those propositions to which the most material additions are subjoined.

'Some valuable treatises on Magnetism and Electricity, particularly those of Mr. Cavallo, having appeared since the original publication of this volume, it was thought necessary very considerably to enlarge this part of the work; and it is hoped that the principal discoveries in these branches of science will now be found under their respective heads. By the suggestion of a friend, on whose judgment the public has long placed great confidence, it has been deemed proper that the first principles of Chemistry should form a part of the present volume; and although we have chiefly confined ourselves to the interesting discoveries of the philosophers Black, Priestley, and Lavoisier, on Heat and the Factitious Airs, it is nevertheless presumed, that enough has been said on these subjects to render the doctrines and introductory practice to modern chemistry perfectly intelligible to any person who may be desirous of farther prosecuting the study of this amusing and useful science.

'The Reader ought to be apprized, that besides additions to the old plates, two new ones are now given:—one, as already noticed, accompanying descriptions of several pneumatic and hydraulic machines, and the other containing figures relating to subjects in magnetism, electricity, and chemistry.

'It is hoped that the augmentations to the volume, although they compose about one-third of the whole work, will be found such as ought at this period, to be comprehended in an elementary book of science; and that the speculations of Dr. Herschel, towards the end of the astronomical part, will not be considered as an exception; they are at least the speculations of a great mind, and capable of exciting, in every well-disposed heart, emotions of interest and exquisite pleasure, inasmuch as they lead to the grandest and most sublime notions of the great Author of the universe.

'* See Prop. 5, 13, 22, A, (p. 157,) 42, B, (166,) 61, 62, 66, 68, 69, 76, D, (p. 188,) 94, 122, 128, 144, and 145.'

'† See Def. 1, 12. Prop. 8, 16, 20, 32, 35, 39, 51, 57, 72. 78, 79, 83, 109, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 123, 136, 167, 168, 177, 179, A, B, (p. 346–7,) 182, 183.'

'The Editor will only add, that in the additions to this work, he has uniformly aimed at conciseness; and he will consider his exertions well rewarded, if it be found, by a candid and discerning public, that he has not sacrificed perspicuity to brevity, and that he has not omitted, within his prescribed limits, any material article that might serve to render the original work, in its present enlarged state, generally acceptable and useful.'

The reader will find an account of three volumes of sermons by the late amiable Dr. Enfield, in our Review for September last, p. 67.

ART. XIV. *Observations on the pernicious Consequences of Forestalling, Regrating, and Ingrossing*, with a List of the Statutes, &c. which have been adopted for the Punishment of those Offences; and Proposals for new Laws to abolish the System of Monopoly: Remarks on the Impolicy of the Consolidation of small Farms: Thoughts on, and Acts relative to, the Coal Trade; as also, On the Sale of Cattle at Smithfield, Contractors, Carcase and Cutting Butchers, Fish and Cheesemongers, Poulterers, &c. with an Account of some Convictions of Regrators; and Reflections on the Act lately passed for incorporating The London Flour, Meal and Bread Company, with various Notes, Hints, &c. By J. S. Girdler, Esq. 8vo. pp. 366. 6s. Boards. Seeley. 1800*.

In order to avoid precipitation of judgment, it is obvious that evidence should be patiently heard on both sides; and this conduct we particularly wish to adopt on the present occasion. It is of infinite importance to ascertain the real source of scarcity, or of the high price of provisions. Are short crops, uniting with the political state of Europe, and the expensive part which we have taken in the war, the dominant causes of the present evil; or are we to attribute it principally to systematic speculations and extensive monopolies, carried on by dealers in corn and in other articles of prime necessity? If the first be the case, we should exercise patient resignation and the strictest economy, in the hope that our hardships will be only temporary: but if there be justifiable cause for asserting the latter reasons, then the indignation of the public must be excited against such authors of distress; and plans should be devised to prevent the sacrifice of general comfort and happiness, to schemes of narrow selfishness and individual aggrandisement. Some respectable writers maintain the impossibility of monopolizing corn, to such an extent as will generally affect the price; and they contend that, in seasons of deficiency, an advance of price, which is the natural result of eagerness to obtain and to retain for a time, operates as much to the advantage of the public at large, as to that of the individual dealer or dealers purchasing with this idea; in as far as it tends to put the community on short allowance. It has also been argued that *Plenty will shew itself;* and that the whole herd of forestallers, regraters, and ingrossers, against whom such a cry is raised in hard times, would defeat their own purposes, if there existed a real abundance to be poured into the public market. When, however, it is known that the quantity in hand is insufficient for the supply of the year, and that difficulties obstruct a liberal importation, the intelligent dealer will naturally avail himself of this circumstance; and the immediate effect of his arrangements may indeed produce greater dearness: but the question is, does it not also serve to keep off subsequent famine?

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* An abridgment of this work is published by the author himself; price 2s.

To plead the cause of corn-dealers and other provision merchants, in opposition to the general interest, would be criminal; yet, on the other hand, we should not endeavour to propagate prejudices against any class of men, which may endanger their persons and property, and render them odious in the public eye, without possessing most ample ground of reason and of truth. The side which Mr. Girdler has taken is sufficiently evinced in the title-page, and we give him the fullest credit for fair and honourable intentions. He writes with the view of benefiting his countrymen, and of resisting monopolies and combinations, to which he believes the present enormous price of all the necessaries of life may be attributed. We are told by him, in the introduction to this volume, that he possesses 'vouchers the most authentic, and evidence the most complete, to prove that the avarice of man has intercepted the bounty of his maker;' and we doubt not his persuasion of the validity of such vouchers. We request him to consider, however, whether he has appreciated the full meaning of the word *intercepted* in this place? He denies that there was a deficiency in the crop of 1799 [*]; and in opposition to the well-known saying among countrymen, that "it is better for the vallies to feed the hills, than for the hills to feed the vallies," he asserts that 'in wet seasons the high and dry lands always overpay the deficiency of the low lands;' and he mistakes the meaning of another old English proverb,

"Whenever the hill assists the dale,
There is abundance of corn for sale,"

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[*] Among other assertions, he maintains (p. 47) that it was 'abundant.'

for this cannot mean that, when the dales are inundated in wet seasons, and the corn in them is destroyed or damaged, the hills can compensate the deficiency; which would be contrary to universal experience: but the proverb means that, in seasons moderately favourable both to hill and dale, the country may expect full markets. Mr. G. moreover accuses the farmers and cornfactors of joining ‘ in a general declaration that the scarcity was extreme,’ while they knew the very reverse to be the case: but, if the reverse were the case, is it possible to believe that a million of quarters, added by importation to this internal sufficiency, should make no impression? Mr. G. also tells us that he has ‘ been up and down the river Thames,’ and in other large towns besides the capital, and has discovered granaries and uninhabited houses filled with flour, wheat, and other grain;—that there were ‘ barge and lighter loads of flour in barrels, taken from the mills and mill warehouses, and other repositories, and *said to be* for the use of government.’ The aggregate quantity of hoarded grain, however, Mr. G. does not state; nor does he give any reason for doubting that there are numerous barrels of flour shipped and unshipped every day in the river *for the use of Government*. The great population of London requires vast deposits of corn; and a navy of 120,000 sailors, with an army still more numerous, (to say nothing of the East India and merchant service,) must require a great additional number. To tell us, therefore, that there are strings of granaries on the river is nothing to the purpose. The question to be ascertained is, what is the quantity which a prudential care of the city, and of the public service, requires to be kept in hand; and what, if any, should be the excess over and above this quantity?

In the next chapter, when Mr. Girdler roundly asserts that ‘ every one who has not participated in illegal practices must rejoice in some late convictions,’ he is surely illiberal. He must know the doctrine of Dr. Adam Smith; and that many independent and enlightened men have hesitated in admitting the principle on which these convictions proceeded *.—As to his remarks on the pernicious effects of consolidating numbers of small into large farms, they are on the whole just: but we would not recommend the interference of the legislature in this matter, any more than we would join with Mr. G. in ridiculing the threshing machine, and other modern improvements in husbandry.

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* Sir Thomas Turton has very ably argued these points in his “ *Address*,” &c. See our last Review, p. 324.

With little consistency does the advocate for small farms urge the expediency of forcing farmers to the use of oxen in agriculture. Does not Mr. G. know that ox-teams cannot be kept on small quantities of land? Can he suppose that farmers would give the preference to horses, in certain cases, without substantial reasons? ‘ Our ancestors (he says) used oxen for ploughing, and asses for riding;’ in course we ought to do the same, ‘ for many persons in London, well able to walk, keep horses out of mere vanity, whereby many of them are helped into the Gazette.’

Contrary to the declaration made in the Duke of Portland's letter, Mr. Girdler asserts that ‘ the kingdom has, for a series of years past, upon an average produced, and does yet produce, more than a sufficient quantity of grain to supply all its inhabitants, without any assistance from foreign parts.’ It would give us great pleasure to have this proposition demonstrated: but here the assertion stands unaccompanied by so desirable an appendage. We are told of ‘ wheat being *secretly* conveyed out of the kingdom:’ but is it credible that merchants would *smuggle* corn out of the kingdom, when they must lose more than cent per cent by so doing? We have heard of smuggling being carried on with the view of great gain, but never with the certainty of immense loss.

That the necessaries of life have risen greatly in price, within a few years, all house-keepers know *to their cost*. Perhaps the following table may be acceptable to those who wish to compare different periods together:

‘TABLE

Of the COMPARATIVE PRICES *of the* NECESSARIES *of* LIFE *for a* FAMILY, *consisting of a* Man, *his* Wife, *and* Five *or* Six Children.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS CONTRASTED.

1775.	*s.*	*d.*	1795.	£.	*s.*	*d.*	1800.	£	*s.*	*d.*
Bread, 6 half-pecks, at 1s. 1d. . . .	6	6	Bread, 6 half-pecks, at 1s. 11d. .	0	11	6	Bread, 6 half-pecks, at 2s. 10d. .	0	17	0
Meat, 14lb. at 4d.	4	8	Meat, 14lb. at 7d.	0	8	2	Meat, 14lb. at 10d.	0	11	8
Soap, 1lb. . .	0	5½	Soap, 1lb. . .	0	0	10	Soap, 1lb. . .	0	0	10
Candles, 1 lb. .	0	6	Candles, 1lb. .	0	0	10	Candles, 1lb. .	0	0	11
Butter, 2lb. at 6d.	1	0	Butter, 2lb. at 10d.	0	1	8	Butter, 2lb. at 1s. 2d.	0	2	4
Cheese, 3lb. at 3½d.	0	10½	Cheese, 3lb. at 7d.	0	1	9	Cheese, 3lb. at 9d.	0	2	3
Small beer, 3 gall. at 3d. . . .	0	9	Small beer, 3 galls. at 5d. . .	0	1	3	Small beer, 3 galls. at 7d. . .	0	1	9
Milk, 1 gallon	0	6	Milk, 1 gallon	0	1	2	Milk, 1 gallon .	0	1	4
Vegetables . .	1	0	Vegetables . .	0	2	0	Vegetables . .	0	3	0
Coals, 1 bushel	1	0	Coals, 1 bushel	0	1	4	Coals, 1 bushel	0	2	0
For one week,	17	3	For one week,	1	10	6	For one week,	2	3	2

‘ Exclusive of House-Rent, Shoes, Stockings, Linen, Woollen, and other Articles of Apparel; Strong Beer, and various domestic Necessaries which cannot be dispensed with, not here enumerated.’

The truth of the reflection which immediately follows cannot be denied:

'If then this rapid increase shall be suffered to continue: and, indeed, if the present high prices shall not be speedily and effectually reduced, by the means recommended in other parts of this treatise; the prices of all kinds of ingenuity, labour, and skill, and the profits of every trade, should be increased so as to keep pace with them; or otherwise the great bulk of the people, that is, the middle and lower classes, will very soon be impoverished to a degree that will greatly injure the national resources; and for which increased contributions from the rich (which, comparatively speaking, are few in number) will by no means compensate.'

Though we are sometimes constrained to question the statements and to resist the arguments of this writer, we feel pleasure in every opportunity of testifying approbation. He has taken pains to acquire information, and his reflections are animated by benevolence and public spirit. His strictures on the Act of Incorporation of the London Flour Company are truly judicious. He has no expectation of national benefit from incorporated monopoly, and he sufficiently exposes the radical defects of the act itself. The profuse praise lavished on this new company by a late pamphleteer obliged us, in a recent article, to hint our opinion of its probable operation. An incorporated company dealing in corn, flour, and bread, must possess advantages not enjoyed by common dealers, which may be turned to the benefit of the company, and not to the public good. Governments are not in their most enlightened moments, when they encourage such schemes; so inconsistent with the liberal and expanded principles avowed by our ministers themselves, respecting the wise policy of a free trade! Let such trade be encouraged *, and there will be no necessity for public granaries, nor for obliging families to manufacture their own bread; which, in great towns, where both *space* and *time* are very valuable *articles*, would be extremely inconvenient.

Mr. G. argues for *shaking the bushel* in measuring, for enforcing *pitched* in opposition to *sample* markets, and for making it a law that all corn sold shall be delivered to the buyer in open market, and that the seller shall not in the same or *future* market expose it at an advanced price. He may sell it, we suppose, for *less* than it cost him, and *live* (as they say) *by the loss*. This may be called taking care of the public: but it must be a public without trade; for under such a law, Commerce could not exist.

We have attentively followed this gentleman through the different chapters of his work, in which he remarks on the effects

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* Desisting from setting the assize of bread, afterward recommended, is wise only on the principle of leaving trade open and free.

of

f the bounties given by the Agricultural Society to promote vhat is termed improved breeds of sheep *—on carcase utchers—on the fish and coal markets, &c. &c. and we re convinced by what he has advanced that, to the merit f good intention, he has added great persevering industry, n hopes of promoting the general welfare; yet we must e *free to confess* (to use parliamentary language) that he as deduced his conclusions of existing abundance, and extenive monopolies, from very slender and insufficient premises. The quantity of grain passing over Maidenhead bridge, and ther local circumstances equally trifling, tend but very little owards ascertaining the amount of the national produce and tock of grain; and the documents which are here given do ot warrant the inference, that the high price of the necessaries f life is owing to the rapacity of forestallers, who have educed monopoly to a system, and who *drink the tears of the abouring poor out of cups of silver.* If gentlemen employ such nflammatory expressions in their writings, are we to wonder hat the common people are instigated to violence, and that heir violence is ill-directed? As inquiries are now making by arliament, it may not be amiss to hint that, 'when the nterested are examined, it requires more than usual sagacity to rrive at the truth;' nor may it perhaps be unjust to suspect hat persons engaged in the corn trade will avail themselves of imes and seasons: but there seems no reason and justice in reprobating them as the authors of our present calamity, and in ointing towards them the artillery of the public indignation.

Art. XV. *The Prospectus, Charter, Ordinances, and Bye-Laws, of the Royal Institution of Great Britain.* Together with Lists of the Proprietors and Subscribers; and an Appendix. 4to. 3s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

The Charter of Incorporation states that the *Royal Institution*, of the establishment of which some account is here given, is formed with the view of '*diffusing the knowlege and facilitating the general introduction of useful mechanical inventions and improvements; and for teaching, by courses of philosophical lectures and experiments, the application of science to the common purposes of life.*' In the Prospectus, its motive and object are more fully

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[*] In consequence of these premiums, the farmer is induced to make the sheep more fat than is necessary, and so far to waste his pasture. However the butcher and the candle-maker may admire them for "tallowing well in the cawl and on the kidney;" an useless superabundance of fat is produced on the carcase, which disgusts, and produces great waste in families.

explained. We are there reminded how intimately mechanical improvements are connected with the comforts of social man, and yet how slowly these improvements make their way into common use. To remedy this defect is the avowed purpose of the founders of the new philosophical society, which is designated by the style and title of the Royal Institution *.

'Among the various operators who take their stations in the great laboratory of civil society, there are others who cannot be classed either with manufacturers or merchants, though they perform a great and very essential part of the general work. These men are philosophers, who have devoted themselves to the labour of observing,—comparing,—analysing,—inventing. The movements of the universe, the relations and habitudes of men and of things,—causes and effects, motives and consequences,—are the powers on which they meditate for the developement of truth, by those remote analogies which escape the vulgar mind. It is the business of these philosophers to examine every operation of nature or of art, and to establish general theories for the direction and conducting of future processes. Invention seems to be peculiarly the province of the man of science; his ardour in the pursuit of truth is unremitted; discovery is his harvest; utility his reward. Yet it may be demanded whether his moral and intellectual habits are precisely such as may be calculated to produce useful practical improvements. Detached, as he usually is, from the ordinary pursuits of life, little if at all accustomed to contemplate the scheme of profit and loss,—will he descend from the sublime general theories of science, and enter into the detail of weight, measure, price, quality, or the individual properties of the materials, which must be precisely known before a chance of success can be gained?—Does he know them?—will he become an operative artist?—or can he make advances of this nature, if he do not?—Are his motives and his powser equal to this task?—Surely they are not.—The practical knowledge,—the stimulus of interest, and the capital of the manufacturer, are here wanting; while the manufacturer on his part, is equally in want of the general information, and accurate reasoning of the man of science.'

How are these obstacles to be conquered? How are the genius and efforts of men of science, in their different departments, to be assisted and combined for the public good?

'There appear (says the intelligent author of this Prospectus) to be but three direct methods of diminishing or removing these difficulties: 1. To give premiums or prizes to the inventors. 2. To grant temporary monopolies. And, 3. To direct the public attention to the arts, by an institution for diffusing the knowledge and

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* For the novel use in this country of the term *Institution*, some apology is made; and lest we should suspect that the phrase is borrowed from the French word *institute*, we are told that it is a term 'already well known for near a century, in the famous "*Instituto*" of Bologna.'

facilitating the general introduction of useful mechanical inventions and improvements. The *first* already constitutes the object of a most respectable Society;* the *second* is already provided for by the law of the land; and the *third* is now offered to the consideration of the public.

'The two chief purposes of the ROYAL INSTITUTION, being the speedy and general diffusion of the knowledge of all new and useful improvements, in whatever quarter of the world they may originate; and teaching the application of scientific discoveries, to the improvement of arts and manufactures in this country, and to the increase of domestic comfort and convenience; these objects will constantly be had in view, not only in the arrangement and execution of the plan, but also in the future management of the Institution.

'In the execution of the plan, the Managers have purchased, with the approbation of the Proprietors, a very spacious and commodious house in Albemarle-street, where convenient and airy rooms will be prepared for the reception and public exhibition of all such new mechanical inventions and improvements, as shall be thought worthy of the public notice, and proper to be publicly exhibited; and, more especially, of all such contrivances as tend to increase the conveniences and comforts of life, to promote domestic economy, to improve taste, or to advance useful industry.

'The completest working models, or constructions of the full size, will be provided, and exhibited in different parts of this public repository, of all such new mechanical inventions as are applicable to the common purposes of life.' —

'In order to carry into effect the second object of the Institution, namely, that of *teaching the application of science to the useful purposes of life*, a lecture-room will be fitted up for philosophical lectures and experiments; and a complete laboratory, and philosophical apparatus, with the necessary instruments for making chemical and philosophical experiments: and men of the first eminence in science will be engaged to officiate in this essential department.'

These extracts will be sufficient to explain to our readers the outline of this Institution; from which, if we are to judge by the noble and liberal patronage which it has received, no inconsiderable benefit seems to be expected. The opulent and fashionable members of society are here invited to an intimate familiarity with science; as it is presumed that, 'when the rich shall take pleasure in contemplating and encouraging such mechanical improvements as are really useful, good taste, with its inseparable companion, good morals, will revive:—rational economy will become fashionable: industry and ingenuity will be honoured and rewarded; and the pursuits of all the various classes of society will then tend to promote the public prosperity.'

'* The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted 1753.'

If such effects can be produced by this Royal Institution, its establishment will be a singular blessing: but, though we would not damp the ardour of enterprize in its patrons, we are taught by experience not to raise our expectations too high on these occasions.

For the system of rules and regulations, we must refer to this work.

ART. XVI. *An Inquiry into the Life, Writings, and Character of the Reverend Dr. William Guild,* one of the Chaplains in Ordinary to his Majesty King Charles I. and Founder of the Trinity Hospital, Aberdeen. With some Strictures upon Spalding's Account of him, and of the Times in which he lived. By James Shirrefs, D.D. Senior Minister of Aberdeen, &c. 8vo. pp. 142. 2s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1799.

As the motives of Dr. Shirrefs, in this publication, are composed of gratitude for benefactions bestowed on his native city, and of respect for distinguished learning and virtue, they must intitle him to considerable praise; and this praise will be increased by the candour and love of truth which pervade the work: but the subject of the history is too little known, and the events of his life are not sufficiently varied, to excite general interest. Dr. Guild was born in the year 1586, and very early distinguished himself by his writings. In 1617, when James I. endeavoured to establish Episcopacy in Scotland, he appears to have been consulted on that important occasion; and, by his prudent and honourable conduct, to have engaged the esteem and friendship of the celebrated Bishop Andrews, to whom the management of that difficult business was intrusted. Every person conversant in history knows that James failed in his attempt, and had wisdom sufficient to refrain from renewing it during the course of his reign. Happy would it have been, had his successor pursued the same line of conduct: but, actuated by a zeal which, however laudable, must be confessed to have been ill timed, (if not intemperate,) Charles I. by proclamation ordered the *liturgy* to be used in the public worship of the Church of Scotland; and this imprudent step may be considered as one great cause of the civil war which not long afterward ensued.

Of the solemn *League* and *Covenant*, which was the immediate consequence, our author speaks in the following manner:

> 'At this alarming crisis, when the resentment and jealousy of the nation were aroused, it was thought necessary to establish, as a test of principle, that famous *Covenant*, which has been so much applauded by some, and so much reprobated by others. Impartially considered,

it was little more than a solemn renunciation of Popery, and a mutual bond, by which the subscribers engaged, upon oath, to oppose all religious innovations, and to assist each other against all their enemies. As its tenour was perfectly agreeable to the general sentiments of the nation, this engagement was, in a short time, voluntarily subscribed by persons of all ranks and conditions.'

Some of our readers may perhaps deem this a partial account of what has been termed a rebellious combination: but it must at least be acknowleged, by every person who has read this extraordinary composition, that it is drawn up with great art and studied ambiguity. Dr. Guild conceived that there were passages in it unfavourable to royalty; or he would not have thought it necessary, when he signed it, to have made the reservation that, by this act, he did nothing contrary to the allegiance which he owed to his sovereign; and the Doctor was not singular in his opinion, since many subscribed to the covenant with similar exceptions.

The remaining part of Dr. Guild's life was clouded with troubles and mortifications, inseparable from the confusion of the times. After having discharged the duties of his office as Principal of King's College, Aberdeen, with great reputation, for the space of ten years, he was deposed in the year 1651. To this cruel sentence he submitted with laudable composure and resignation, and died in the year 1657; universally esteemed for his many virtues, and for his numerous public charities. Some of the latter were of such a nature as to require a large fund for their support, yet Dr. Shirrefs does not give any particulars respecting the private fortune of Dr. G.; and the honourable office which he held in the University of Aberdeen was by no means lucrative. On this subject, the reader may possibly indulge some curiosity; which, we think, might have been gratified.

ART. XVII. *Addisoni Epistola missa ex Italiâ ad illustrem Dominum Halifax, Anno* 1701. *Auctore,* A. Murphy. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

THIS epistle of Addison has been much admired, but more perhaps on account of the great name of the author, than for the sake of its intrinsic merit. To us it always appeared a languid poem; though, with much fulsome flattery, it contains some good observations and just sentiments. In this Latin translation, Mr. Murphy has embellished those parts of his author which are defective in strength and harmony; and he has avoided with some dexterity, a few glaring absurdities into which Mr.

Addison inadvertently fell.—Mr. A.'s incidental address to Liberty has been generally praised, and often quoted: but we shall transcribe it here, in order that our readers may compare Mr. Murphy's version of it. They will observe that he has amplified the invocation; and in these flowing lines they will trace him in the footsteps of the elegant Roman bards:

> "Oh! Liberty, thou Goddess, heav'nly bright,
> Profuse of Bliss, and pregnant with delight!
> Eternal pleasures in thy presence reign,
> And smiling plenty leads thy wanton train;
> Eas'd of her load subjection grows more light,
> And Poverty looks cheerful in thy sight;
> Thou mak'st the gloomy face of Nature gay,
> Giv'st beauty to the Sun, and pleasure to the Day."

> 'Libertas, O Diva! tuo mortalia corda
> Numine quæ comples; O Cœli vera propago!
> Heroum Genetrix! hominumque Deûmque Voluptas!
> Te, Dea, Te fugiunt Luctus, Te tristis egestas;
> Te sequitur secura quies, Te gaudia vitæ,
> Dulcis amor patriæ, et sancti reverentia juris.
> Te duce mansuescit sœvæ inclementia Brumæ;
> Floret ager, messes audent se credere cœlo,
> Pauperis et tuguri sub tecto mulctra Colonum
> Lacte juvant, fert alma Ceres sua dona, diesque.
> It melior, Solesque novo splendore nitescunt.'

We shall cite one more example of the embellishments and additions contained in this translation, and of the use which Mr. Murphy has made of his classical studies in his younger days:

> "How am I pleas'd to search the hills and woods
> For rising springs, and celebrated floods!
> To view the NAR, tumultuous in his course,
> And trace the smooth CLITUMNUS to his source;
> To see the MINCIO draw his wat'ry store
> Through the long windings of a fruitful shore;
> And hoary ALBULA's infected tide
> O'er the warm Bed of smoking Sulphur glide."

> 'Quam juvat errantem in sylvis nemorumque recessus
> Explorare Lacus vitreos, atque inclyta cantu
> Flumina! jam video rapidis ubi volvitur undis
> Sulphureâ NAR albus aquâ; jam fontis amæni
> Apparent Latices, ripis CLITUMNUS opacis
> Unde per arva fluens viridi trahit amne Liquorem.
> Parte aliâ tardis devolvens flexibus undas
> Itquè reditquè viam, crebrisquè Ambagibus errat
> MINCIUS, et Late viridantes irrigat agros;
> Perque imas valles, et olentes sulphure ripas
> ALBULA præcipitat fumanti gurgite fluctus.'

Addison has been censured for an unlucky mistake in these lines:

> " Nor at the coarseness of our heaven repine,
> Though o'er our heads *the frozen Pleiads* shine." P. 38.

It seems strange that Mr. A. should be ignorant that the Pleiades, so far from being in the frozen regions of the heavens, are situated within 23 degrees of the equator; and this error is the more extraordinary, because, in his translation of the 4th Georgic of Virgil, without any authority from the original, he speaks of their adding fresh lustre to the summer skies. Mr. Murphy has prudently substituted the seven stars in the great Bear:

> ' *Quamvis supra caput horrida nimbis*
> *Stet glacialis hyems, et tardi plaustra Bootæ.*'

The confusion of metaphors in the following lines has been exposed by Dr. Johnson with such just severity, that Mr. Murphy is warranted in having wholly omitted them:

> " I bridle in my struggling muse with pain,
> That longs to launch into a bolder strain." P. 44.

We shall only farther remark that, in our opinion, the admirers of modern Latin poetry will derive much pleasure from the perusal of this translation.—It may appear like the pedantry of criticism, to observe, respecting Mr. M.'s phrase *ad Dominum Halifax*, that we know not whether the term *Dominus* is expressive of a title of honour: but *Comes* is the Latin appellation for Earl; and *ad Comitem de Halifax* would certainly have read much better than the expression here employed; which Mr. Murphy has avoided in his dedicatory Ode to the Lord Chancellor,—Baroni *de Loughborough*.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1800.

ARCHITECTURE.

Art. 18. *Gothic Ornaments of the Cathedral Church of York*, drawn and etched by Joseph Halfpenny. 4to. 6s. each Number. Sold in London by Mr. Taylor, High Holborn.

We have pleasure in announcing the completion of this elegant work; which, in twenty numbers, exhibits one hundred and seventy-five different specimens of the architecture and decorations of one gothic building. In M. R. vol. xxii. N. S. p. 327. we mentioned the appearance of the first seven numbers; and we can now add that Mr. H. has persevered with equal spirit, attention, and success. He has subjoined to his specimens (see No. XX.) four general views, taken from the internal parts of the Church and Chapter-House, in order to explain the situations which the respective ornaments occupy in the Church, and to convey an idea of the different styles of design at the several periods of building. We are rather surprized that, to the Inside Views, he has not added a perspective elevation of the Exterior.

To what is called the Gothic style, much attention has lately been given; and the study of it has not been unrewarded. Certain parts possess exquisite beauty. When the stupendous structures of this kind fall, we cannot expect the re-erection of them; and for this reason, we hope that the zeal, which arises from admiration and veneration, will excite unremitting regard to those repairs which are necessary to sustain them through a succession of ages, as monuments of antient taste, and as proofs of merit at a period when the arts in this kingdom were thought to be extremely low.

In No. XVIII. plate 95, are given four compartments, coloured, in the ceiling of the Chapter-House; which are from paintings on wood, and seem to be done *in alla tempora* with a coat of varnish over it. To the account of those compartments, the following note is added:

'History informs us, that the Arts and Sciences were introduced into this island in the seventh century, and that in the tenth century, in the reign of king Edgar, Painting was then held necessary to the accomplishment of a refined education: yet Mr. Horace Walpole (afterward Lord Orford) in his Anecdotes of Painting, says that the earliest account on record, he could meet with, is dated 1233, in which King Henry III. orders the Sheriff of Southampton to have the King's chamber at the Castle of Winchester, painted with the same histories and pictures with which it was first painted.'

The author pledges himself for the accuracy of his drawings; in taking which, he was assisted by the scaffolding erected for workmen, which enabled him not only to examine minutely the several members and ornaments delineated, but also to chuse his point of view and distance. We congratulate him on the patronage which he has experienced, and which he appears fully to deserve.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 19. *Literary and Characteristical Lives of John Gregory, M.D.; Henry Home, Lord Kames; David Hume, Esq.; and Adam Smith, LL.D.* To which are added a Dissertation on Public Spirit; and three Essays. By the late William Smellie, Member of the Antiquarian and Royal Societies of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 450. 7s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1800.

The biographical portion of this posthumous work, which was written by a person who was in intimate habits with the eminent characters mentioned in the title-page, would have communicated greater interest, had the author imparted particulars calculated to afford a more accurate view of their private conduct, opinions, and tempers, than can be collected from a perusal of their writings, or the public events of their lives, which are already sufficiently known.

Such, however, was not the design of Mr. Smellie. He relates the principal changes in the situation of his philosophic friends, and the period of the publication of those works from which they derived their celebrity; usually accompanying these particulars with abstract of the books themselves. If the universal circulation of those works did not supersede the necessity of such a task, this plan would probably possess more attractions; the author's ability being unquestionable.

A Dissertation on the means of supporting and promoting public spirit, and three Essays now published, were written in the year 1763, when the author was only twenty years of age. Public Spirit is defined to be, 'an habitual temper or disposition of mind, which incites the person endowed with it uniformly to prefer general advantage to private interest;' and the juvenile writer is sanguine enough to assert that 'were the mind properly tutored, love to the whole human race would, in a few ages, become as general as self love at present.' We must reluctantly confess, however, that the means which he recommends for this purpose seem very inadequate to the production of this universal cosmopolitanism.—The Essays treat of the following questions; 1st, Whether are all animate and inanimate bodies made for the immediate use and conveniency of mankind; or, is that only a secondary end of their existence? 2d, Whether oratory, on the whole, has been of use to mankind? The first of these problems is determined in the negative, the latter in the affirmative. The last Essay is on poverty.—The style of the whole work is intitled to commendation: but the observations, though sensible, are obvious, and frequently common-place.

EDUCATION.

Art. 20. *A complete Introduction to the Knowledge of the German Language;* or, a Translation from Adelung: arranged and adapted to the English Learner; &c. By George Crabb. A new Edition, corrected and revised. 12mo. pp. 175. 4s. Boards. Johnson, &c.

It is not often that we find authors submitting themselves to the rod of correction, however merited, and profiting by the advice which has been given to them. We are therefore glad to rank Mr. Crabb in the class of those on whom admonition is not bestowed in vain; and to observe that the strictures which we passed on the first impression of his German Grammar, Rev. for August 1799, have tended to the production of a second and much improved edition: in which the author has not only corrected his former mistakes, but has bestowed such pains on the whole arrangement, that his grammar is now become an useful manual to all learners of that language. Indeed, from a careful perusal of it, we do not scruple to pronounce it, in its present shape, one of the best German Grammars now extant in the English language. The *examinations* and *practice*, which the author has added to the several sections, must prove very acceptable to the student; and the irregular verbs are exhibited in a judicious manner, so as not to perplex the learner.—In the former edition, the practice of the syntax was crowded with figures referring to the rules:

but, as the utility of these references, to an attentive student, might be doubted, Mr. C. has now very properly omitted them. The press-work, also, has been corrected with so much attention, that we have met with few typographical errors: a most important recommendation of an elementary book.—The former preface, likewise, has been very wisely expunged.—Indeed, the whole Grammar has undergone so complete and favourable a change, that the author might with propriety have intitled it a new work.

These remarks will shew that we have bestowed some attention in perusing this volume; and we shall give a farther proof of it by pointing out a few errata and mistakes; which, though of little importance, ought to be avoided in a future edition.

P 45 read *glänzen.* P. 75. in the first example, *sie*, which occurs twice, ought to be printed with a capital. In the same page, *des Catilins* is erroneous for *Catilina's*; as is *Lang*, p. 81; which, when an adverb, *correct* writers always spell with an *e* final. P. 86. *dann* after the comparative is totally obsolete, except in verse. In the same page, occurs a complete anglicism, to which even Germans in this country are very liable, when negligently speaking their native tongue, viz. *Ich liebe ihn am besten*, instead of *I. l. i. am meisten*; or *ich liebe ihn am liebsten.*—P. 91. The common phrase *einen vor den Kopf stossen* is incorrectly translated, *to affront one to his face.* It simply means, *to offend a person.* At p. 105, in the third line from the bottom, is an erratum.—P. 109. The verb *zurücksch—lagen* is inaccurately divided; its second syllable terminates in *ck.*—In the verb immediately succeeding, the letter *s* after *ſ* is superfluous.—P. 156. for *Afferei* read *Äfferei.*

Art. 21. *Cortez;* or, the Conquest of Mexico: as related by a Father to his Children, and designed for the Instruction of Youth. Translated from the German of J. H. Campe. By Elizabeth Helme, Author of Instructive Rambles in London and its Environs, &c. &c. 12mo. Two Vols. in one. 3s. 6d. sewed. Low, Law. 1799.

Art. 22. *Pizarro;* or, the Conquest of Peru; as related by a Father to his Children, &c. Translated from the German of J. H. Campe. By Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. Two Vols. in one. 3s. 6d. sewed. Low, Law, &c. 1799.

The plan of this German writer, and Mrs. Helme's design of presenting his labours to the English public, have been already notified to our readers in our 31st vol. p. 58, where we gave an account of the first of this series of publications.

It is to be regretted that Dr. Robertson has shewn so much deference to the Spanish accounts, as to hold up Cortez as an object for admiration; and as a man possessing, in an eminent degree, almost every quality which constitutes the hero, even humanity not excepted. Disapprobation is occasionally expressed during the recital of an act of barbarity: but the censure is transient, and the hero re-appears almost immediately with undiminished lustre. M. Campe, who has principally consulted Dr. Robertson, likewise treats Cortez with too much favour, and qualifies his censures with palliatives. One of the children is made to demand, " what the Sovereign of Mexico had done to the King of Spain, that he should make war upon him ?"

' *The Father.* Nothing.

' *Frederic.* Why then did he make war?

' *Father.* To become master of his treasures, cities, people, and country.

' *Frederic.* The Spaniards were then robbers, father?

' *Father.* Nothing more, my dear Frederic.

' *Frederic.* Oh fye! I have done with Cortez. I thought he had been a generous, good man.

' *Father.* He was so in many respects. In those days such dreadful superstition reigned among men, that all who did not profess the Christian religion were not considered as beings of the same order, but as creatures deserving only of hatred, rejected by God, and destined to eternal torments. Upon this principle, it was held as pious and praise-worthy to persecute, despoil, &c.—Cortez considered himself as an instrument in the hand of God.——You see, therefore, my children, that it is possible for the same man to be at once a hero and a robber; pious and inhuman!——Oh, that there had been one enlightened, one courageous friend to humanity, to have opened the eyes of the blinded Cortez by thus addressing him— " What art thou about, unhappy man? What has been the crime of these harmless people, &c."—Had one been found to have spoken thus to Cortez, the mist with which superstition had enveloped his otherwise great soul, might have been dissipated, and with the same zeal he employed in extirpating the suffering Indians, might he have become their declared protector against other bands of European robbers.'

Surely the author has here misconceived the character of Cortez. Whoever impartially considers the general tenor of his conduct, we apprehend, will scarcely give him credit for possessing a heart made of such penetrable stuff, as that he would have been deterred, by any representations of justice or of humanity, from the prosecution of his enterprize. Neither can much stress be laid on his being influenced by mistaken piety. Cortez seldom appears to have been hurried away by superstition, except when the natural insolence of his disposition had been encouraged by success. Many of his worst actions were wholly unconnected with motives of piety, either real or pretended. The condemnation of the Mexican General Qualpopoca and his officers to be burnt alive, the putting to the torture and the execution of the Emperor Guatimozin, and many other similar atrocities, can be referred to no other motives than to those of avarice and cruelty. If the Mexicans of those days could have transmitted to us the history of their calamities and ruin, the character of Cortez would probably have found no advocate who would have endeavoured to rescue it from ranking with the worst which the world has produced.

The inquiries and remarks of the children, with the explanations which they excite, are entertaining and instructive:—but the author's definition of superstition, in the fifth dialogue, appears to us to want correction.

The history of Pizarro being written in a similar manner, we shall only remark on it that here, likewise, M. Campe places too much value on a spirit of enterprize; a spirit which requires the stamp of a good motive in order to be intitled to praise.

The narrative in both histories is clear and animated; and the translation is unaffected and easy.

Art. 23. *The Young Lady's New Guide to Arithmetic*; being a short and useful Selection, containing, besides the common and necessary Rules, the Application of each Rule, by a Variety of practical Questions, chiefly on domestic Affairs, together with the Method of making out Bills of Parcels, Book Debts, Receipts, &c. for the Use of Ladies' Schools and private Teachers. By John Greig, Teacher of Writing, Geography, &c. 12mo. pp. 80. Wallis. 1800.

The pretensions set forth in this title page are not ill supported in the body of the work; which may be useful where personal instruction is not to be obtained.

Art. 24. *Dangerous Sports.* A Tale addressed to Children. Warning them against wanton, careless, or mischievous Exposure to Situations from which alarming Injuries so often proceed. By James Parkinson. 16mo. pp. 183. 2s. Symonds.

Were the style of this little volume equal to the matter which it contains, it would merit high commendation; and with its defects of this nature, it deserves to be considered as an useful addition to a child's library. No works require so complete a mastery over language, with so much taste and judgment, as compositions for children.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 25. *Speed the Plough:* a Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed with universal Applause at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

To be methodical in our account of this pleasing comedy, we must begin by observing that Mr. Fitzgerald has furnished it with a good Prologue. We think, however, that the complaint of unsuccessful bards being forgotten is not quite accurate: there are records not only of bad poets, but of those who were sworn foes to the Muses. Perhaps good writers are less safe from the monsters of envy, and from shallow critics, than the little *Nautilus* is from "the monsters of the deep."—Mr. F., addressing himself to the class of "critics, who rule o'er politics and plays," terminates his prologue very happily by the following four lines:

> 'Protect our Author on the coming day,
> And though you damn the prologue—spare the play;
> To your decree each Dramatist must bow,
> Give but your aid, and that will 'Speed the Plough!'

To analyse the plot of this comedy, and enable our readers to judge of whom and what we are speaking, it may be necessary to tell them in the (we think) useful manner of the *Dramatis Personæ* of our old comedies, what kind of character each individual is to represent.

Sir Philip Blandford; an hypochondriac gentleman, labouring under the pressure of some secret calamity or guilt.—*Morrington;* a mysterious character, of great use in the *dénouement*.—*Sir Abel Handy*; a whimsical character, vain of his genius for mechanics, and a purchaser of all kinds of quackeries and new inventions.—*Bob Handy*, his son; a wild shatter-brained young man, full of pretensions to universal knowlege and accomplishments: the intended husband of Miss *Blandford*, but fond of *Susan*.—*Henry;* an orphan youth, utterly ignorant of his family, distinguished by his virtues, and living with *Farmer Ashfield*.—*Farmer Ashfield;* an honest, industrious, and jocose tenant of *Sir Philip Blandford*; Father of *Susan*.—*Evergreen:* Sir Philip's old Gardener, in possession of all the secrets of the family.—*Gerald*, servant of *Morrington*.—*Postilion*.—Young *Handy's servant*.—*Peter*, servant to *Sir Abel*. —*Miss Blandford;* daughter of *Sir Philip:* an amiable, innocent, and generous character. —*Lady Handy;* a termagant upstart, formerly servant to *Farmer Ashfield*.—*Susan;* daughter of the *Ashfields*, secretly, but innocently, attached to *Bob Handy*.—*Dame Ashfield*; the Farmer's wife; with no other infirmities than rheumatism, and a little neighbourly envy at *Goody Grundy*'s better circumstances.

Act I. The west-country dialect is well supported in the first scene, and throughout the play, by Farmer Ashfield. In this Act, besides the liveliness of the dialogue, Dame Ashfield's jealousy of Dame Grundy, bringing her name in on all occasions, is truly risible. The Gardener, speaking in his own character, draws all his similies and allusions from his occupation. Sir Abel's passion for new inventions.—The patent lock that can't be picked—The horizontal bolt—Grand substitute for gun-powder – The patent medicine-chest —The infallible axletree—Waterproof shoes—Newly invented pocket glass – Small camp-chair—Converting saw-dust into deal-boards—Preparation for extinguishing flames—Fire-escape—Patent fire-engine, &c. and the conceit of the young 'squire as a cudgel-player, whose head is broken by the old Farmer;—are all laughable.

Act II. Dame Ashfield pardons Bob Handy too easily for spoiling her lace. The description of *Ton* is excellent. The stage motto, *veluti in speculum*, is here fulfilled.—The *rage*, or rather the *pretension* to every thing—The affectation of cleverness, accomplishments, mechanics, agriculture, botany, arts and sciences in general—New discoveries, &c. Scene III. is really touching; and yet, thro' tears, we must laugh at the old man's provincial language.

Act III. Sir Philip's hatred of Henry is as much too violent as his daughter's love, we should rather say simplicity; which resembles that of Miranda in *The Tempest*; who never saw a young man before, nor any man, except her father and Caliban.

Act IV. The *éclaircissement* between Miss Blandford and her father is well written. Bob Handy's description of new inventions is very good: but Bob becomes a rational creature rather too suddenly. Perhaps, however, that circumstance renders Sir Philip's confidence in him more natural.

Act V. It has been observed that Sir Philip's choice of Bob Handy, an eccentric character, for his confidant,—that he should view his brother's offspring with such detestation—that the instrument of his guilt should have been preserved—that Miss Blandford's and Henry's love at first sight, in which she makes the advances,—are unnatural incidents:—but, with these defects, if defects they be, it should be allowed that there still remains merit sufficient in the piece to intitle it to a place among our best modern comedies. Nothing can be more contrasted, and distinct, than the characters of this play: the two Baronets; Bob and Henry; Morrington and Farmer Ashfield; Gerald and the Gardener; Lady Handy and Miss Blandford.—Indeed, honest Ashfield, his wife, and daughter, are consistently similar, and of one family; at which the admirers of contrast can scarcely grumble.

Mr. Andrews has furnished an Epilogue truly comic, in the spirit of the play itself, as well as in that of the individual, Bob Handy; who still retains his mixed character of half foolish, half wise; half profligate, and half a man of honour. Mr. A. has made good use of the dispute concerning the old and new century, the affectations and nudities of female dress; and he has produced a good *pun*, if critics may allow such a thing to be possible, on the enormous bustle with which the necks of the men are encumbered:

> 'Your taste, cries Dad, I fear your credit shocks,
> The *rise* of *Cravats* proves the *fall* of *Stocks*.'

Art. 26. *Atys; or, Human Weakness;* a Poetical Essay. By J... M... 8vo. 2s. Vernor and Hood, &c. 1799.

We have often thought that blank verse is a species of composition not well adapted to *sermonizing*; and the poem before us has tended to confirm that idea. The reader of it, we imagine, will be of opinion with us that it is already *long*: yet the author promises, or threatens, to continue it through several books, if this first specimen shall be supported by the public approbation. We should be very bold, if not rash, if we ventured to promise him that support:—for we conceive that the taste of the present day will not much relish an insipid tale respecting a boy and a goddess on Mount Ida, encumbered with the stale mythology of old Greece, loaded with flat and common-place morality, and delivered in the heavy and unharmonious blank verse of a modern poetaster.

Whether we speak too harshly of this poem, the reader may judge from such lines as these:

> 'And as old Rome form'd into deities
> The blackest tyrants *that*, since earth BEGAN
> *Who*, with their crimes, even shame the vilest age,
> So he will fondly canonize his sin,
> While from some hated Virtue, with foul hands,
> He tears her *glory*'s wreath, and *darkens* her
> To some foul Vice's *shape*—*Posterity*,
> Not wiser than their *sires*, and sway'd alike
> By the same passions, greedily receive

The *perjured legend* they have handed down,
And add new strength by fictions of their own.'

We are at a loss to guess where that author learned the meaning of the word *Wisdom*, who could thus write respecting the idea which it designates:

———'Where Wisdom, then,
Proud boast of human kind, where rest thy vaunts,
That thou alone art Virtue? Cast far back
Thy view unto past ages, and where once
Thou'st thrown a light on Virtue, for that once
Confess how often, *for thy own base ends*,
Thou hast encreased delusion, and *abused*
Thy godlike mission, by *augmenting* still
The *errors* of thy race. Short sighted once
But rendered blind by thee, *Credulity*,
Thy duty to remove, serv'd as a *base*
To raise *thy fabric* on—year after year
Tread on each other's heels—race after race
Sink down into the tomb—new *errors* still
Thy children teach, and those of fools believe.'

Art. 27. *Equanimity: a* Poem. By Mason Chamberlin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1800.

Art. 28. *Harvest:* a Poem. By Mason Chamberlin. 8vo. 6d. Clarke. 1800.

The first of these poems is in fact a sermon in blank verse, on the text *In patience possess your souls;* and the latter may be considered as a composition of the same description, on the subject of *grateful piety and trust in God.* In the first poem, there is something to justify its title: but the second has little if any thing in it that is appropriate to its avowed subject. The season and labours of *Harvest* are not described; and if a reader of the poem were required to give it a title, that which it now bears would scarcely occur to his mind. Serious and pious sentiments are diffused through both of Mr. Chamberlin's poems; into whose blank verse, texts of scripture are very liberally interwoven, which often produce a prosaic effect, and give (as we have said) the idea of a sermon put into measured lines. It is impossible to object to the religious tendency of the remarks and observations: but we lament that they were not either exhibited in plain prose or in a diction more truly poetical. Let the reader judge by the following specimens from *Equanimity:*

'Of blessings, which the truly wise alone
Are qualified to taste, who use the world
As not abusing it.———'

'O confess
Your insufficiency, receive henceforth
The aid vouchsafed you, leave the devious paths
Of speculation, fruitless as 'tis vain,
And proving all things, seek the surer road.

Mark'd out by Revelation from above.
Soon shall the crooked paths be render'd straight,
The rugged places plain and God appear,
Directing each particular event
For final good, though often times by means
Inscrutable to man.'

'There imprint
The useful lesson, that the Great Supreme
Disposes all things, for the benefit
Of such as walk uprightly in his sight.'

'The bliss of heav'n
Describ'd with all the simple eloquence
Of Inspiration's genuine oracle,
In such as mortal eye hath never seen,
As ear hath never heard, nor heart conceiv'd.'

In the poem called *Harvest*, the materials, structure, and merit of the verse are the same with those of the former. Thus we read, in a part most appropriate to the given subject:

'For not alike in each succeeding year
Can the prolific earth yield her increase,
E'en with the utmost labour man can use.
Nor is a temporary scarcity
The certain sign of Heav'n's awaken'd wrath.
Let then frugality attend our use
Of the abundance sent from time to time.'

To enforce the practice of frugality, the poem thus concludes:

'When to supply the famish'd multitude
He wrought a miracle, himself enjoin'd
To gather up the fragments that remain,
When all had eaten, that no needless loss
Might be incurr'd, but liberality
With prudent care be blended—pattern just
For all to follow, who have hope to taste
The better joys of an eternal world,
Which he hath promised to his followers.'

Dr. Johnson's remark on witty perversions of Scripture may partly be applied to poetry composed of scraps from the Bible: *it is too easy to satisfy real genius.* We allow such a mixture in prose-exhortations from the pulpit, but it will not be permitted by the genuine offspring of Parnassus.

Art. 29. *Pizarro; ein Trauerspiel in Fünf Aufzilgen, &c.* i. e. Pizarro, a Tragedy in Five Acts, represented at the Theatre Royal, Drury-lane, according to the German of Von Kotzebue's *Death of Rolla*, or *The Spaniards in Peru*, adapted to the English Stage, and enriched by R. B. Sheridan; translated into German by Constantine Geisweiler. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1800.

"Every dog has his day," says the vulgar proverb; and so has every novelty in the world of Letters: which holds especially true with respect to dramatic compositions. It is with most modern plays as it is with pills, powders, and other quack medicines. Each is puffed, panegyrized, and has a temporary run; and then it falls into disrepute, to make way for another novelty, doomed in its turn to the same sublunary fate. Thus Anderson's pills, James's powders, and even *Baume de Vie* and the good Bishop of Cloyne's tar-water, have all yielded the palm to *Quassia*. Quassia is the catholicon of the present day, the great panacea for every ailment!

What Quassia is in the *Materia Medica*, Pizarro, for some time past, has been in the *Materia Dramatica*. Pizarro! Pizarro! resounds from the counter to the palace, and all ranks are equally delighted with that motly incoherent importation: while the Germans laugh at our bad taste, and exclaim "*O imitatores! servum pecus!*"—What will they say when they learn that this same metamorphosed English-German Pizarro has been re-metamorphosed into its original form? This is, however, the case; and we have now before us a German version of Mr. Sheridan's Pizarro, under the title above transcribed.

Our English readers will not expect that we should quote any part of this new Pizarro for their perusal; and the Germans would not thank us for specimens of it in their own language.—We trust, indeed, that our rage for German plays is nearly over; and that our play-wrights will henceforth have good sense enough to trust to their own native powers for the support of the English theatre.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 30. *Remarks on the Deficiency of Grain*, occasioned by the bad Harvest of 1799; on the Means of present Relief, and of future Plenty. With an Appendix, containing Accounts of all Corn imported and exported, with the Prices, from 1697 to the 10th of October 1800; and also several other Tables. By John, Lord Sheffield. 8vo. pp. 120. 3s. 6d. Debrett.

Party declamation and narrow views ought studiously to be avoided in discussing the question of present scarcity. If the war blends itself, as it necessarily must, with the consideration, it is not its principle but its wide extent and vast magnitude which must be put into the scale. We may say of it as Juvenal says of Hannibal, *res humanas miscuit;* and hence the difficulty of obtaining a foreign supply has been added to the circumstance of deficient harvests. It must also be observed, that the bad harvest of 1799 extended over a great part of Europe. Can it be matter of wonder, then, (to use Lord Sheffield's words,) 'that we are fallen into distress.' Europe, we are told, is nearly exhausted; and if this be true, it is evident that we must depend more on internal management than on succour from abroad.

Lord Sheffield is of opinion that an army and navy of 300,000 men do not consume more corn than they did as individuals, particularly in the instances of those individuals who were peasants. They may not devour more; though the circumstances under which they are fed require a greater quantity to be taken for them out of the common stock, than would be necessary to sustain them in their individual occupations.

tions. This, however, is a partial view of the subject. In proportion as labourers are taken from the soil, its productiveness must be diminished; and in what are called *catching harvests*, the want of hands is a grievous evil. How far the extent of our levies has operated in diminishing the quantity of arable land, or in causing it to be sown in a less workman-like manner, we have never heard stated. This fact, if it be a fact, it may be difficult to ascertain.

Dismissing every surmise on the operation of the war, let us attend to other views of the subject. Supposing our annual consumption to be 8,000,000 quarters of wheat, and that *communibus annis* our produce is adequate to our consumption; and supposing the crop of 1799 to yield only two-thirds of the usual supply: there must be a deficiency of 2,666,666; and if we deduct from this deficiency, 1,200,000 quarters imported, there will still remain a deficiency of 1,400,000 quarters. If the stock in hand, at the commencement of the last harvest, was nearly exhausted, so that it was necessary to begin immediately on the new wheat, it must be admitted that peculiar attention and economy will be requisite to carry us through the year. In the month of September, Lord S. observes, we generally have at least four months of supply in hand; consequently, we have anticipated four months of our usual stock; and, taking the crop of 1800 to be a fair one, we have yet four months' provision to obtain by importation and management. From his investigations, however, his Lordship is inclined to believe that the crop of 1800 is not a full average crop; and therefore our embarrassment is increased. This is certainly a calamity, which, Lord S. apprehends, is likely to be increased by indiscriminate clamours against dealers in corn; and he very judiciously exposes the practice of arguing, from the customs established in the early periods of our history, against the present system of trade. He is persuaded that corn cannot be monopolized* to any great and permanent extent in such a country as this; he maintains the national utility of the middle-man; and he cannot believe that the instance of a person dealing in hops, with a peculiar boldness of speculation, is sufficient ground for reviving the repealed statutes. Some evils, he is aware, exist in the corn-trade; yet he would not encourage the populace in illiberal prejudices against the whole body of those who are engaged in this trade, because the imaginary remedies employed by incensed and misguided mobs must tend to convert scarcity into absolute famine.

After having stated, in Part I., the nature, progress, and extent, of our present distress, Lord Sheffield proceeds to detail, in Part II., *the Means of Relief*; which, comfortable to relate, he says, are within our reach. He protests against a maximum, against public granaries, and against fixing the price of labour; and he recommends the liberal mixture of other grain with wheat, in making bread,—the importation and substitution of rice, which (he observes) pays no toll either to millers or bakers,—and the taking out of wheaten flour only the coarse or broad bran. By using no other bread than such as is made of this sort of flour, he calculates that a great saving would ensue, in as much as there would be then one-sixth or one-seventh more flour to be converted into bread.

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* He observes that, in order to have monopolized only a month's consumption in this last summer, a capital of nearly five millions sterling would have been requisite.

The Third Part of Lord Sheffield's patriotic lucubrations, treating of the *Means of future Plenty*, is for the present postponed.

Art. 31. *An Appeal to the good Sense of the higher and wealthier Orders of the People*, on the high Price of Provisions and of Corn in particular. 8vo. 6d. *per* Dozen. Hatchard.

We fear that this penny worth of admonition will be thrown away; because it advises the rich and luxurious, with whom privation is no easy task, to cease to consume flour and bread in their families till the next harvest; and particularly to banish that stimulant to bread-consumption, *cheese*. The author reasonably apprehends that, in genteel establishments, there would be some difficulty in bringing servants, who feel not the pressure of the times, to subscribe to this self-denying ordinance.

Art. 32. *Letters to the Duke of Portland and the Earl of Liverpool, &c* on the present high Price of Provisions. By P. D. Parquot. 8vo. 1s. Law.

When the hardships of the poor are daily augmenting by the high price of the necessaries of life, it behoves those who undertake publicly to discuss the subject, to avoid all expressions which tend to inflame the populace; and to refrain from detailing as facts the assertions of the inconsiderate and *unexamining* vulgar. The author of these letters does not appear to be aware of the consequences of such errors. He attributes the scarcity to Corn-badgers, who he says are called *Corn-jews;* and to whom he gives the additional title of 'Famine Mongers;' and he tells us that 'it would be invidious to point out any *particular places*, but that an *immense quantity*, he is sorry to add, is daily spoiling by hoarding.' If he knows where immense quantities of corn are daily spoiling, and contents himself with being *sorry*, he is accessary to the wickedness of the famine-mongers: but we do not suspect him of knowing any such thing: we accuse him of pretending to know more than he does. His scheme of taxing corn with-holden from market, on a geometrical ratio of so much for the first week, double for the second, &c. is too absurd for comment. This gentleman may have 'seen sights, (as he tells us,) from a King's coronation down to a cottage:' but when did he see or read of farmers being formerly glad 'to swig their butter-milk?' Persius mentions as a mark of the growing degeneracy of his times, that

> " *Fœnisecæ crasso vitiarunt unguine pultes :*"

but we should not draw a proof of the farmer's luxury from his not robbing the pigs of their butter-milk.

Art. 33. *War proved to be the real Cause of the present Scarcity, and enormous high Price of every Article of Consumption*, with the only Radical Remedies. By Robert Waithman. 8vo. 2s. Jordan.

This writer in a great measure exonerates the dealers in corn from blame in the present trying period; and he believes that monopolies are the effects rather than the cause of scarcity, which must always exist when the supply is inadequate to the demand.—The substance and complexion of this pamphlet, to prevent mistake or misrepresentation, shall be exhibited in the author's own words:

'The present scarcity and extravagant high price of every necessary article of life, arise from the present *expensive*, *destructive*, and most *unfortunate* war, into which the nation has been unjustly and unnecessarily precipitated, and in the prosecution of which the people have been most fatally deluded;

'First. By the great waste and increased consumption which it occasions.

'Secondly. By the numerous government contracts, and the large stores collected for the use of our armies and navies.

'Thirdly. By the immense load of public debt, or false capital which it creates.

'Fourthly. By the amazing quantity of paper-money, which is a natural consequence; and

'Fifthly. The prodigious increase of taxes.'

Under the first head, the following statements respecting imported grain are given. The average importation of wheat for 12 years previous to the war was 169,082, NOT a *fortnight's* consumption.

'In 1796	the importation of corn of various kinds was about -	2,000,000 quarters.
1797	- - - -	1,091,079
1798	- - - -	1,239,091
1799	- - - -	1,006,994.'

By this increased importation, our wants are not relieved; for which the following reason is assigned:

'There are between three and four hundred thousand men now employed in the land and sea service, who not only consume, but add nothing to the general stock: were they employed in the cultivation of land, the produce of their labour would maintain upwards of twelve hundred thousand persons, instead of which they require as much at least as would maintain one million of inhabitants at home.'

Under the second head, the author maintains that, 'even were the quantity sold precisely the same, the very circumstance of one man known as a government buyer, purchasing a large quantity, must raise the market much higher than if the same quantity were bought by several small dealers.'

In support of the third position, it is observed that 'the national debt forms a false capital, and for every accumulation of debt, there are so many more persons to be supported in indolence at the expence of the industrious; so that it is not one of the least evils of war, that it multiplies the indolent, and diminishes the industrious, besides rendering the condition of those remaining less tolerable by the additional burthens they are forced to sustain.'

The fourth position is thus supported. 'The quantity of this fictitious money has had a direct tendency to raise the price of every thing else; nothing can be more true than the assertion, that, if money be *dear*, every thing else must be *cheap*; and if money be cheap, every thing else must be dear in proportion to their relative quantities.'

On the last head, or on the operation of increased taxation, it is remarked that 'numberless instances might be produced to shew that every thing has risen in price with our debt and taxes, but it is sufficient to refer to the American war, as it must be within the recollection of many. During that war, articles rose gradually with our debt and taxes, and after its conclusion they never returned to their former prices, because, when the war ended, the taxes were not discontinued; while the present enormous taxes exist, it is impossible that things can revert to their former channel.'

Some subordinate observations, with some strong anti-ministerial remarks, are added; after which, Mr. W. proceeds to the enumeration of his radical remedies: which are 'the restoration of peace—a rigid and radical reform in the public expenditure—the abolition of unnecessary places and pensions—some limitation to paper currency—a general inclosure bill—a speedy and effectual relief for the labouring poor, by the erection of a sufficient number of cottages throughout the kingdom—a repeal of the income tax;—as also some regulations in the mode of taxing horses, livery servants, &c. by which the consumption may be lessened, and employment given to the helpless females, who now become a burthen to themselves and to society.'

Thus have we suffered Mr. W. to speak for himself; and we shall also leave our readers to form their own judgment. He dedicates his pamphlet to the late Lord Mayor, and concludes it with a fervent wish for the dismissal of ministers.

Art. 34. *The Discharge of 37,000,000l. of the National Debt, demonstrated to be Part of the Cause of the rapid Dearness of Provisions* that has taken Place within the last Ten Years: proving on the same compound Principle upon which the Debt is discharged, the Extent of that Part, viz. That the first Four Millions discharged had the pernicious Effect of depreciating each annual Income of 26l. to the Amount of 1l. 14s. 8d. that is, to 24l. 5s. 4d. and so on progressively: with some Thoughts on the Principles that must be adopted to save the Nation from the impending Ruin attendant on such a Disaster. Being Part the Second of "The Cause of the threatened Famine traced to its real Source." By Common Sense. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Scott.

The pamphlet, of which this is announced as a continuation, was noticed in our last Review, p. 326. The arguments there employed are here, according to the author's confession, for the most part repeated, but with a more extensive application. As to the principle of the system which the author deems it 'his duty to God, to human nature, and social order, to expose,' it may not be generally understood even with his repetitions and additional explanations. Mr. Common Sense states his doctrine in the form of a paradox, viz. that the immense quantity of money in the nation, or what passes for money, is the cause of our present want*; and that it is this circumstance which weighs down the scale against the laborious part, *the productive power of nations*. In proof of these assertions, he considers the operation of the Circulating Medium—Artificial Capital—Monopoly—Taxation—and the National Debt, pronouncing our fictitious money a real misfortune to the great mass of the people.

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* He gives it afterward, however, in plainer terms, viz. that the right of individuals to issue paper to any amount is the root of all our evils.

Before he proceeds to demonstrate the position in the title, the author objects to the phrase *National Debt*, and says that it ought to be called 'A Debt due by the Productive to the Unproductive Part of the Nation;' and as to the *Funding System*, he terms it 'the meanest shuffle to gain our own ends, without any regard to the happiness of posterity.' He supposes that, by the present mode of diminishing the debt, the part discharged must come into circulation, and thereby depreciate money, and increase the number of the poor to 3,000,000, with a proportional poor-rate. 'The annual maintenance of a pauper is now about 10l., and when money comes, as it must come, to be six times less valuable, six to one more of it must go to do the same thing; in that case the annual maintenance of a pauper will amount to 60l.; 60l. multiplied by 3,000,000, the number of paupers, gives a poor-rate of 180,000,000l.!!! *' What a conclusion! We turn from such calculations. Things cannot go on at this rate.—Are we then lost, the reader will ask, without redemption? We hope not; though we must confess that we should have no hopes of political salvation, if it depended on the adoption of the plan for discharging the national debt suggested at the conclusion of this pamphlet; in which it is recommended to parcel out the crown lands among the stockholders, to abolish paper-currency, and to reduce the annuities in proportion to the cheapness of things, consequent on the preceding measures.

Art. 35. *Letters to a Member of the British Parliament, on the Absurdity of Popular Prejudices;* the Causes of the present high Price of Food; the Means of speedy Alleviation; and the Measures most proper for securing future Plenty. By Thomas Parsons. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

Though Mr. Parsons has been materially anticipated in his remarks, they are delivered with such temper, ease, and perspicuity, as cannot fail of procuring them a favourable reception. The vulgar prejudices against farmers, corn-dealers, &c. are combated with liberality and good sense; and Adam Smith's doctrine of the benefit to society from the division of labour is very clearly illustrated. To remedy existing evils, the author recommends an immediate disuse of all the essential articles of life, in any other form than that of food; the introduction of the most essential substitutes for wheat; importation; the speedy return of peace; and inclosure, conducted with a scrupulous attention to the rights and comforts of the poor, on the sound as well as philanthropic maxim, "Make the poor comfortable, and they will become virtuous and happy." We are pleased to see the cottage system obtaining increasing patronage, in opposition to (as we conceive) the mistaken plan of poverty-hospitals, called Poor-houses, and Houses of Industry. In proportion as we increase the cottage-poor, we shall augment the productiveness of the earth, and diminish the poor-rates. It is in vain to attempt to bring more land into cultivation, unless we provide for those whose labour is to fertilize it. To induce men and their families to live and work on the soil, they must be decently accommodated. Mistaken rapacity would grasp all from the poor: but liberality to them, in the distribution of domestic comfort, is the truest policy.

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* And the annual taxes 156,000,000l.!!!

Art. 36. *Short Thoughts on the present Price of Provisions.* By an Officer of the Volunteer Corps. 8vo. 6d. Wright.

After the many able pamphlets which have been written on the subject of the present scarcity, we cannot recommend this short pamphlet as containing either new or important remarks. It, however, evinces the good intention of the author.

Art. 37. *Hints for a Vindication of Monopoly, Forestalling, and Regrating.* To which are annexed, References to the following popular Topics: The Conduct of the Farmers: the Expedience of advancing the Wages of Labour: the Tendency of War to increase the fictitious Capital of the Nation, and its general Influence on the Prices of Provisons. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan.

Popular suffering excites popular clamour; which rarely proceeds on a knowlege of real causes, and which, therefore, if regarded by legislators and magistrates in their application of remedies, would more frequently increase than mitigate the evil. The operations of trade, in all articles for the use of man, are generally beneficial to a country; and if those articles universally rise in price, we should not be angry with dealers through whose hands they come to us, unless we are prepared to thank them and express our obligations (which in most instances they would be honest enough to disclaim) when these articles are cheap. To remove the more than vulgar misconceptions respecting monopoly, forestalling, and regrating, the author of this pamphlet reasons with great seriousness. 'Dearth cannot, (says he,) be the offspring of these practices, because, if the authors have any interest in producing it, and a power to second that interest, it is evident that dearth must be eternal and unremitting.' He is of opinion, with the majority of writers on this subject, that illiberal restrictions on trade would be injurious to the community; and that 'to attempt to reduce the price of provisions, by any other means than those of increased production, is a policy as spurious as it is unavailing.' This gentleman, however, though he does not join in the declamation against ingrossers and forestallers, is not inattentive to the case of the poor in these hard times. Their wages, he contends, must, in some way or another, be advanced.

Other topics, particularly the funding and banking systems, are here discussed; and amid the various contributions of advice so liberally offered at the present juncture, these hints ought by no means to be overlooked, as they are evidently the fruit of a strong mind, habituated to reflection.—On the subject of war, the writer observes that, 'the visible tendency of all wars is to create a scarcity, by tranferring the productive labourer to a situation in which he degenerates into an unproductive consumer.' Our reason, indeed, proclaims the impolicy, and our religion inculcates the sinfulness of war; yet the Christian world could scarcely have been more deeply involved in all its miseries, had it been without science and without revelation.

Art. 38. *Examen de la Constitution de France de* 1799; *i. e. An Examination of the Constitution of France, of* 1799, and a Comparison of it with the Monarchical Constitution of that State. 8vo. pp. 150. 2s. De Boffe, &c.

In the early days of the French Revolution, who foresaw that, in the course of a few years, a political system would be adopted by Frenchmen, which was less free than the antient monarchy? That this, however, is the case, the present pamphlet fully proves.—The following is perhaps something near a fair comparative view of the respective systems:—The power of the chief consul is far more extensive and absolute, than was ever that of any King of France. On the other hand, under the new system, full scope is given to talents; nothing damps the spirit of enterprize; feudal oppressions and exactions have ceased; the burthens and mischiefs of superstition no longer gall or harass; and the cultivator is better circumstanced than in any other state in Europe.

After having bestowed several harsh epithets on the new system, the author concludes with a pathetic exhortation to the chief consul; urging him, from a regard to his fame and reputation, to the gratitude of France and of Europe, and to his personal safety and happiness, to employ his present immense power in restoring the legitimate sovereign: telling him that he may rest confident that the past will be forgiven and buried in oblivion.—The prayer of this author, however, will probably have no better effect than the advice of Lord Grenville. The present race of Frenchmen are too proud to make, in the face of the world, the solemn avowal that they possess neither wisdom nor virtue enough to form a government for themselves. Whether, by such a step, France would really consult her interest is a point on which much might be said: but the victories of the chief consul, and the general *éclat* of his government, render it an idle discussion.

Art. 39. *Considerations on the Increase of the Poor Rates*, and the *State of the Workhouse, in Kingston upon Hull:* to which is now added, a short Account of the Improvements in the Maintenance of the Poor of the Town. 8vo. pp. 110. Robinsons, &c. 1800.

Important facts, sensible observations, and beneficent yet practicable plans, recommend this work to the attention of the public; who are indebted for this acceptable present, to the worthy governor of the poor of Hull, T. Thompson, Esq. All who have any connection with work-houses, or who have such institutions in contemplation, or who attend in any way to parochial matters, should peruse the pamphlet before us.

As grievous complaints on the subject of the poor-rates resound from all quarters, it may be useful to the public to learn what economy and attention have accomplished in the town of Hull. A perusal of the following note will, we doubt not, occasion to our readers as much agreeable surprize as it excited in us:

'On the 20th January 1800, the following advertisement was inserted in the Hull newspapers:

"*Workhouse, Hull, 20th Jan.* 1800.

"The Governor and Guardians of the Poor in Hull are glad to inform the inhabitants of the town, that, *although the necessities of the times have greatly increased the number of paupers in the workhouse, as well as the allowances to persons out of the house*, they are able to reduce the poor-rates from £8320 to £4160 per annum. The collectors of the poor-rates in the different wards will therefore have directions to receive from each inhabitant, on the 1st of February next, only *one half* of the poor-rate which was paid the last quarter."

Farther reforms in the management of the poor of Hull are carrying on; and this worthy and benevolent author promises to lay the result of them, in due time, before the public.

Art. 40. *Further Thoughts on the present State of public Opinion;* being a Continuation of *A timely Appeal to the common Sense of the People of Great Britain in general, and of the Inhabitants of Buckinghamshire in particular*, on the present Situation of Affairs. By J. Penn, Esq. 8vo. pp. 200. 4s. Hatchard. 1800.

The design of this work is to defend and elucidate the principles laid down in the celebrated *Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful;* and the political doctrines of the same distinguished person are also occasionally introduced, and extolled. If we cannot compliment the author's ideas for their clearness, nor his style for its perspicuity, neither can we deny that he is an intelligent man, and that he possesses enlightened and liberal views. He defends our civil and religious establishments, and the measures of ministers, without pressing either violence or abuse into the service of his cause. He would not extirpate philosophy, nor persecute for opinions; because he deems liberty *a good.*

LAW.

Art. 41. *An Inquiry into the Laws, antient and modern, respecting Forestalling, Regrating, and Ingrossing*, together with adjudged Cases, Copies of original Records, and Proceedings in Parliament, relative to those Subjects. By William Illingworth, of the Inner Temple. 8vo. pp. 310. 7s. 6d. boards. Brooke. 1800.

We have examined this volume with attention, and we think that it deserves a careful perusal both on account of the *present* importance of the subject, and of the fullness and accuracy of the information which it imparts. It will be found essentially serviceable to those whose attention is occupied on the consideration of the present scarcity.

Having considered the offences of ingrossing and raising the price of victuals among antient nations, the author proceeds to state the nature of those offences in this country, both by the common and the statute law. He points out the various acts of parliament by which forestalling was restrained and punished, with the reasons for their enactment; mentions those statutes, relative to this subject, which are repealed, with the reasons for such repeal; and specifies those statutes which still remain in force, with the particular provisions contained in them.

Mr. Illingworth has also introduced many judicious observations on this part both of our statute and our common law, and has presented the reader with the adjudged cases on the statutes 3 and 4 Edw. VI.—5 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 14. and the 13 Rich. II. c. 8. He concludes his volume with copies of original records, for which he acknowleges himself indebted to the kindness of John Caley, Esq. Keeper of the Records in the Augmentation Office.

Art. 42. *Cases in Crown Law*, determined by the Twelve Judges; by the Court of King's Bench, and by Commissioners of Oyer and Terminer, and general Gaol Delivery; from the 4 Geo. II. 1730, to the 40 Geo. III. 1800. By Thomas Leach, Esq. Barrister at Law. Third Edition, with Corrections and Additions. 2 vols. Royal 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

Though we cannot bestow unqualified praise on this work, and though in some instances it appears deficient in accuracy, still we think that it is intitled to public attention, and that it will be found to possess statements of important cases, not inserted in any other publication. To the crown lawyer, it will be serviceable not only on this account, but because many of the cases here introduced are cited in the notes to the last edition of Hawkins's Pleas of the Crown.

This work is not addressed merely to the professional man, but will gratify those who read only for amusement; since the powers of human ingenuity are scarcely ever exerted with better success, than when employed to conceal villainy and evade the laws.

Art. 43. *Term Reports in the Court of King's Bench*, from Michaelmas Term 33d George III. 1792, to Trinity Term 34th George III. 1794, both inclusive. By Charles Durnford and Edward Hyde East, Esqrs. Barristers at Law. Vol. Vth. A new Edition, corrected, with additional References. Royal 8vo. pp. 776. Butterworth. 1800.

We have on several occasions informed our readers that this valuable work has assumed its present commodious shape, from its former expensive size in folio. We have now only to add that, of the eight volumes which are published, five have appeared in octavo; and that they are all enriched with many additional references to subsequent decisions, and to earlier Reports.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 44. *Reflections on the Principles and Institutions of Popery*, &c. &c. occasioned by the Rev. John Milner's History of Winchester. By John Sturges, D.D. Prebendary of Winchester, &c. Second Edition, with Corrections and Additions. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

Having given a long account of the quarto edition of this work, (see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxii. p. 23.) and also of Mr. Milner's Reply, (see Rev. for November last,) it is not necessary to enlarge on the present occasion. The reader is here presented with an impression in octavo, in which the additional notes chiefly relate to some unfair and uncandid statements on the part of Mr. Milner, of which the author has just reason to complain. We are not surprized that the learned Prebendary should determine to discontinue a controversy, 'which would certainly not produce conviction in either of the parties immediately concerned, and to others would be uninteresting.' Mr. M. and the Doctor are 'hardly enough agreed in common principles to be qualified to reason together.'—'I will now (says Dr. S.) *finally* close this controversy on my part, by assuring *Mr. M.* that I should not have esteemed any thing he could have said in my favour so honourable to me, or felt it so gratifying, as the *censures* which he has most liberally bestowed on me in common with such men as *Father Paul, Giannone, Locke, Tillotson, Burnet, Stillingfleet, Clarke, Hoadley, Balguy,* and *Watson.*'

Art. 45. *Reflections concerning Religious Divisions*; affectionately addressed to the People of England. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons, &c.

The author of this pamphlet, which the sincere friends of Christian peace are desired to take into consideration, professes himself to be much alarmed at the progress of Methodism and religious insubordination; and he endeavours to resist these incroachments by urging the advantages of Episcopacy, and of an established and endowed church. Viewing these alleged evils through the medium of fear, they are greatly magnified; and the writer strangely concludes that, if the establishment were removed, and latitudinarianism were to prevail, 'men might in the end need another Paul to declare unto them the God whom they ignorantly worship;'—'every authentic document may be lost, and the ancient languages may want an interpreter.' A man who apprehends such consequences, from the supposed removal of an episcopally governed and richly endowed clergy, does right to plead their cause before the People of England, that the phalanx around them may be strengthened: but he should have considered that wild and extravagant positions seldom assist argument, or facilitate conviction. Let him caution Christians against religious divisions, and let him chastise those who would promote them by illiberal reflections against the established clergy, as not being preachers of the gospel: but let him at the same time discover a spirit of charity and moderation, and avoid expressions which may irritate while they cannot convince.

Art. 46. *Six Sermons*, preached at Charlotte Chapel, Edinburgh, by the Rev. Sidney Smith, A. M. and Fellow of New College, Oxford. 12mo. pp. 212. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman. 1800.

The dedication of this little volume, to Lord Webb Seymour, is expressed in the following terms:—'I dedicate these few sermons to you, as a slight token of my great regard; because I know no man who, in spite of the disadvantages of high birth, lives to more honourable and commendable purposes than yourself.' In the preface, we also find these words, which may assist the reader to form a judgment of the work:—'I wrote these sermons, (says Mr. Smith,) in the exercise of my profession, to do good; and for the same reason I make them public. That they cannot do much, I am well aware, because they are hasty and imperfect specimens of an unpopular species of composition. Some little good, however, they may do; and why should I give way to an immoral vanity, and do nothing in my vocation, because I cannot do much: the sum of public opinion is made up of the sentiments, as the sum of public revenue is from the contributions of individuals; and we become a rich or a prudent nation, by adding together many trifling quotas of wisdom and of gold.—— As long as God gives me life and strength, I will never cease to attack, in the way of my profession, and to the best of my abilities, any system of principles injurious to the public happiness.'

Of these discourses, three are intitled, 'The poor Magdalene,' 'The conversion of St Paul,' (which stands last in the book,) and 'The best mode of charity.' From the latter, one short extract may not be unacceptable:—'It is surprising how many men are cheated by flighty sentiments of humanity into a belief that they are humane; how frequently charitable words are mistaken for charitable deeds, and a beautiful picture of misery for an effectual relief of it. There are many who have tears for the chaste and classical sorrows of the stage, who have never submitted to go into the poor man's cottage, to hear his tedious narrative, or to come close at hand with poverty, and its dismal and disgusting attendants. Pure moral misery wrought up into an artful tale, is a luxurious banquet for the refined mind, which would turn away from the gross unhappiness of real life, where the low and the ludicrous are mingled with the sad, where our delicacy is offended, while our feelings are roused, and we are reminded not only of the misfortunes, but of the infirmities of man.'

The three remaining sermons are of a political kind; and to these, we apprehend, the author had a more direct view in the above paragraph taken from the preface. The titles are, 'Love of country;' 'Scepticism;' 'The predisposing causes to the reception of Republican opinions.' From some parts of the first of these discourses, as when the preacher descants on 'public dishonesty;'—'public fraud;' —'public corruption;'—'magnificent villainy;'—'boundless pollution,' &c.—the reader might, *primâ facie*, be inclined to hesitate concerning the subject on which the reasoning is employed, or the party (if we may use an unpleasant term) against which it is pointed:— shall we hence conclude that similar descriptions may be given on each side of a question?

Mr. Smith possesses a command of words, and he is a spirited and sensible declaimer. The sermons which we first mentioned engage the attention by useful, as well as occasionally striking or affecting remarks; and those which are political, though they do not so well suit the pulpit, which does not permit a free and judicious discussion, yet manifest ability in the author.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 47. *A Treatise on Land-Surveying*, in Six Parts. Part I. Contains Definitions and Problems in Geometry. Part II. Rules for finding the Content of Land without using a Chain, but by stepping the Dimensions, by which any Husbandman who knows the first five Rules of Arithmetic may find the Content of his own Work. Part III. To survey with the Chain and Cross. Part IV. To survey with the Chain only. Part V. Rules for parting off any given Portion of a Field, in form of a Triangle, Square, or Parallelogram. Part VI. A full Explanation of the Method used by the most eminent Surveyors, in measuring and planning a Farm or a Lordship, with a Chain only. Illustrated with Five Copper-Plates, and an engraved Fac-Simile of a Field-Book. The Plates exhibit the progressive Steps of planning a small Farm, and point out the Appearances of the Plan in six different Stages. By Thomas Dix, of Oundle. The Whole illustrated with 180 Diagrams, and 10 Copper-plates. 8vo. pp. 200. Boards. Seeley. 1799.

The Advertisement prefixed to this work says: 'In the following treatise the author does not pretend to any new discovery, or to convey instruction to the experienced Land-Surveyor: his only aim is to supply the deficiency of a book, proper to be introduced into schools, to instruct boys in the first rudiments of land-surveying by the chain and cross only; and as he wishes to render it as useful as possible to young persons, he will thankfully receive any information, from persons conversant in subjects of this nature, to render a second edition more complete.'

The volume contains a variety of examples, with directions well adapted for the intended purpose: but we do not see the necessity of augmenting the expence of a book of this kind with fifty pages on the definitions and construction of geometrical figures: a subject with which the student must be supposed to be previously informed, in the regular course of instruction.

Art. 48. *Description of the curious wooden Bridge across the Rhine at Schaffhausen in Switzerland*, &c. &c. to accompany the Print of the Bridge. 8vo. Pamphlet and Imperial Folio Sheet. 12s. Taylor, Holborn. 1799.

This extraordinary bridge, extending 364 feet, with only one support in the middle, has been noticed in the various accounts of travellers into Swisserland, but more particularly by Andreæ, Coxe, and Ebel. It was completed by Hans Ulric Grubenman, at the close of the year 1758, and stood without receiving any injury till the year 1789, when a few decayed beams were replaced by new wood: after which trifling repair, the bridge was as sound as ever *: but it was destroyed by the French in April 1799. It is some small consolation, after this misfortune, that we are now presented with a well executed print of the bridge, detailing the several parts of its curious construction, and accompanied by a satisfactory description.

Respecting the different opinions of this structure, Andreæ and Coxe describing it as being supported by a pier in the middle of the river, while Ebel and others contend that it had no dependance on that pier, a reference to the construction exhibited in the plate will easily explain that the bridge was intended to be sustained by the two extreme abutments, to the surprising extent of 364 feet:—but the provident designer, aware of the variations to which wood was subject, carefully framed his work so that it should ultimately settle on the middle pier. A farther object was undoubtedly in his view, viz. in case of that pier being destroyed by violent torrents and ice, that the bridge might be supported at the abutments while the restoration of the central pier was executing.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxvii. p. 489.

We remark in this bridge, besides its unrivalled excellence and extent, what we think is of infinite importance to those concerned in structures of this kind; viz. the judicious means taken to preserve it from that decay and perpetual expence, to which wooden bridges are usually liable. In this structure, no part is laid in contact with the water, but rests on the abutments at each end, and over one pier of stone in the middle: besides which, the timbers are protected from the destructive action of the weather, by being inclosed and completely roofed over.

Art. 49. *Remarks on a Tour to North and South Wales, in the Year 1797.* By Henry Wigstead. With Plates, from Rowlandson, Pugh, Howitt, &c. Aquatinted by J. Hill. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Wigstead, Charing-cross. 1800.

A short introduction informs us that these remarks were not originally designed for the public eye, and 'are now merely intended (the writer says) as a sort of Vade Mecum to stimulate the readers to farther and more important inquiries; and in order, if possible, that they may, by being apprized of many inconveniencies we experienced, be enabled to avoid them.'—If, however, Mr. W.'s readers deem the nature of their food and accommodations as important as he seems to have done, we imagine that his book will not excite many new peregrinations in Wales. Seldom, indeed, have we met with a traveller who was so uneasy under the temporary inconveniencies of his situation. Not all the beautiful and romantic scenery, with which he was surrounded, could make him forget that his bed was hard and his fare homely; nor soothe that *vexation of spirit* which these circumstances produced.

The following passage will exemplify Mr. W.'s usual mode of describing Welsh repasts:

'At Llannon, much dirt and little provision is to be had: the cook on our arrival here was in the suds, and, with unwiped hands, reached down a fragment of mutton for our repast: a piece of ham was lost, but after long search found amongst the worsted stockings and sheets on the board: a little child was sprawling in a dripping pan, which seemed recently taken from the fire: the fat in this was destined to fry our eggs in. Hunger itself even was blunted, and we hastened to Swansea, leaving our delicacies nearly untouched. I devoted my attention to a brown loaf, but on cutting into it, was surprized to find a ball of carrotty coloured wool; and to what animal it had belonged, I was at a loss to determine. Our table cloth had served the family for at least a month, and our sitting-room was every where decorated with the elegant relics of a last night's smoking society, as yet unremoved.'

The principality of Wales is not altogether unknown to us; yet we cannot say that our experience has accorded with this representation; nor with some other anecdotes related by Mr. W. (pages 40, 41. 48, &c.)

Our readers will see, from the subsequent extract, that the author can occasionally fill his pages with better materials than the preceding; and we think that he might have more frequently presented the latter and suppressed the former:

'From Llanwryst to Conway, the road is romantic in the extreme. At almost every two or three hundred yards a foaming torrent is seen dashing from incredible height on one hand, and an extensive and fertile vale on the other; with the gently gliding river Conway meandring through its enclosed pastures. Conway has many enticing properties to the traveller. Food for the pencil is to be found in abundance. On approaching it, the towering, venerable and extensive remains of the castle appear majestically above the town, which is surrounded with the ancient wall, very entire in many places. It is by no means a large town, but clean, with two very good inns. The river is here a mile broad. The castle was built by Edward I. in 1284. Its form is oblong, and placed on the verge of the solid rock. Whole turrets on one side have given way, and their tremendous fragments in gigantic masses have rolled from their rocky base to the strand, where they now *lay*. The passing traveller can but admire and tremble, lest, by a similar (and perhaps equally instantaneous) crash, he may be overwhelmed by another partial dissolution of this venerable remnant of antiquity.'

The travellers passed by Aberystwyth, yet not a word is said of Hafod, the celebrated seat of Mr. Johnes;—and they did not go into any part of Pembrokeshire!

We observe that the author gives the same name to the rivers which pass through Caermarthen and Cardigan: but the one is the Towy and the other the Teifi. Perhaps he apprehended that they were one and the same.

Twenty-two views decorate this volume. They are drawn with spirit, and tinted with great truth and effect: but in some of them (e. g. the view in Coventry) there are too many strokes of the caricaturist's pencil, when we consider the plates as designed for correct representations of nature. The views of Llangollen Vale, Snowdon, Nantz-Mill, Tintern Abbey, and Ragland castle, (near Monmouth,) are particularly pleasing and well executed.

⁂ Since the above was written, the newspapers have informed us of the death of Mr. Wigstead.

Art. 50. *Critical Remarks on Pizarro*, a Tragedy, taken from the German Drama of Kotzebue, and adapted to the English Stage by Richard Brinsley Sheridan. With incidental Observations on the Subject of the Drama. By Samuel Argent Bardsley, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

We had hoped that the rage of the *Pizarro* was over, and that our attention would not again be solicited to its merits and defects. It seems, however, that the frenzy went down to the country with the spring-fashions; and that, aided by the heat and dryness of the summer, it has made a most alarming progress. Dr. Bardsley informs us, that the good people of Manchester have been highly enthusiastic in their admiration of this tragedy; and that 'it not only took possession of the theatre, but also intruded itself into every private society.' It seems that it was even discussed at different meetings of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, whose graver labours we have frequently had occasion to notice. Such phænomena shew that this tragedy has the warmth of Hotspur,—whose spirit lent a fire

> "Ev'n to the dullest peasant in the camp:
> Led ancient Lords and reverend Bishops on
> To bloody battle, and to bruising arms."

Dr. Bardsley appears to have mistaken his ground completely, in attempting to break the light butterfly of Kotzebue on the wheel of regular criticism. The German writer certainly never intended to imitate the antient models; and Mr. Sheridan seems to have considered the piece merely as a vehicle for patriotic sentiment and splendid machinery.

The transient popularity of Pizarro has affected Dr. B.'s mind so strongly, that he has cited the number of editions [fifteen] through which it has run, as unparalleled in dramatic history. Has the Doctor never heard of the editions of the Beggar's Opera? to say nothing of Shakspeare.

Art. 51. *Supplement to the Collections for the History of Worcestershire.* Folio. pp. 104. 1l. 1s. sewed. White. 1799.

In our lxvth vol. p. 257, we gave an account of Dr. Nash's valuable History of Worcestershire; and the second volume was the subject of a brief commendatory article in M. Rev. vol. lxvii. p. 339. The present *Supplement* contains, besides many corrections, a variety of curious *Additions* to Dr. Nash's volumes. Among other articles, we have particularly noticed the information conveyed in the author's observations on the Irrigation of Land; on Canal Navigation; on Stourport; on Cyder; and the extraordinary accounts of the tendency of that pleasant beverage to promote the health and longevity of its habitual drinkers, in the cyder-counties.

Some biographical sketches are also interspersed, and contribute to the entertainment and information which this Supplement affords.

Art. 52. *Leonard and Gertrude.* A popular Story in German; translated into French, and now attempted in English; with the Hope of its being useful to the lower Orders of Society. 12mo. pp. 367. 3s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

The lessons intended to be conveyed in this book are certainly unexceptionable: but we have some doubt whether they will be much relished by persons of the lower class in this country, because they often refer to manners and customs which do not exist among us. One great objection to the work, considering its avowed purpose, is the price; though the paper is very coarse. The poor man's library, at this rate, would cost as much as that of a person in easy circumstances.

Art. 53. *A visible Display of Divine Providence*; or, *The Journal of a captured Missionary designated to the Southern Pacific Ocean*, in the second Voyage of the Ship DUFF, Capt. Thomas Robson, captured by *Le Grand Buonaparte*, off Cape Frio; including every remarkable Occurrence which took place on board the *Duff*, the *Grand Buonaparte*, &c. in the Province of Paraguay, Spanish South America, and Portugal, on the return Home, in 1798, and 1799. By William Gregory, one of the Missionaries; [many others, some with families, were embarked with him.] With Extracts from the Journals of the Rev. Peter Levesque, Rev. John Hill, James Jones, John Levesque, and other Missionaries, captured in the Duff. 8vo. 5s. in Numbers. Symonds, &c.

Our curiosity was much gratified by the perusal of this uncommon publication. The honest Journalist will doubtless be termed an enthusiast by many readers, and many pages of his book will be regarded as mere fanaticism: but, exclusive of those passages in which Mr. Gregory considers the principal occurrences of the voyage as particular dispensations of Divine Providence, most readers, we conceive, will find themselves greatly interested in those distresses and deliverances which the pious and patient wanderers experienced, in the course of their adventurous and disastrous undertaking. On the whole, we are persuaded that Mr. G.'s work will be generally regarded not only as a *pious* but as a *faithful* and *entertaining* performance.—For our account of a greater work, on the first missionary voyage to Otaheite, &c. see M. R. vols. xxxi. and xxxii. N. S.

Art. 54. *A Dissertation, moral and political, on the Influence of Luxury and Refinement on Nations, with Reflections on the Manners of the Age at the Close of the 18th Century.* By Adam [illegible], A. B. Rector of Clarendon, in the Island of Jamaica. 8vo. pp. 161. 4s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

How hopeless is it to detail the causes of national ruin! What people ever derived wisdom from the sad experience of other nations; or, admonished by the history of subverted empires, nobly rejected opportunities of acquiring wealth and power; or, having acquired them, resisted their seducing and enervating influence? Great riches have always engendered luxury; and whether these have flowed on a country through the channels of commerce or of conquest, they uniformly have had a fatal effect both on the public and private [illegible]

These reflections have [illegible] we should have received from Mr. [illegible] His [illegible] on the effects of riches and luxury [illegible] systems and licentious productions [illegible] states, are justified by the page of history [illegible] for he cannot perhaps [illegible] and religious education [illegible] the most effectual check [illegible] and vice which [illegible] Mr. [illegible] confesses that '[illegible] eloquently describes [illegible] ing a national [illegible] causes a variety of [illegible] it generates an inordinate selfishness, and causes vanity and show to have a greater influence than the institutions of religion or the laws of nature.'

Viewing Great Britain with these sentiments in his "mind's eye," he remarks that 'we have too many reasons to fear that this country has passed its meridian of energy and virtue.' Yet, unwilling to despair, he exhorts us to invoke 'the Genius of Simplicity with Innocence in his train;' and afterward, in a style more suited to a Christian divine, he recommends the early imbueing of the mind with the noble principles of our religion. He particularly cautions ladies against reading the generality of novels; because, independently of their flimsy texture, and many other exceptions, they have a tendency to make women unfit for the duties of real life, by holding up to their imaginations visionary and romantic representations of fictitious scenes. We entirely concur with him in this opinion.

Art. 55. *Cautions to young Sportsmen.* 8vo. 6d. Robson.

We cannot say that the cautions of this small pamphlet are new: but this is no objection: they are designed for the benefit of young sportsmen, and this purpose they are calculated to answer. We can seldom compare the price of a book with its worth: but the present pamphlet is cheap at sixpence. The sporting world are indebted for it to Sir Thomas Frankland, Bart.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Of the work to which H. E.'s *first* communication related, we now find, an account had been composed by one of our friends, before his letter was received; and an article is also in preparation respecting the performance mentioned in his *second* letter. We must therefore decline his offers; for which, however, we are obliged to him.—The first letter shall be returned, when it again comes to the editor's hands, if nothing to the contrary is intimated by Mr. E.

The reader is requested to add the following note to our remarks on the word *Wah*, page 350 of this Review, in the article respecting Major Rennell's work on the Geography of Herodotus.—We would not be understood to dogmatically assert that there is no such word as *Wah*, though it is certain that a very copious Arabic Dictionary, to which we have referred, does not contain it. In the map of Edrisi, published by Dr. Vincent, the districts in question are named *Afwah;* this word signifies the springs or fountains; and to these sources the fertile spots in question owe their existence. If Major Rennell has not mistaken the word, this origin of the name seems to us perspicuous and convincing; *judicent eruditi.*

☞ Rev. November, p. 242. l. 12. for 'important,' r. *trivial.*

⁂ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXIII. of the MONTHLY REVIEW, N. S. will be published with the Review for January, as usual.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTY-THIRD VOLUME

OF THE

ONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

T. I. *Lycée, ou Cours de Littérature,* &c.; *i.e.* The Lycæum, r a Course of Lectures on antient and modern Literature. By . F. LAHARPE. 8vo. 7 Vols. Paris. 1799. Imported by)e Boffe, London.

E had been long waiting for a copy of this interesting work, when we at length received that which is now our table. The importance of the subject, the reception ich the lectures obtained when publicly delivered at Paris viously to and during the Revolution, and the number of umes for which they had furnished materials, all acted as nulants to our curiosity.

A complete course of lectures on the rise and progress of rature seems to imply a history of the transactions of hu- n intellect; at least, in a cultivated state: for where there o literature, there is no civilization. The plan of this enprize, indeed, is not new: but the execution seems to be more nplete than in any former attempts. To extract the essence every antient work that has escaped the destructive scythe time; to analyse its beauties and point out its defects; to tinguish creation from memory, or originals from copies: draw parallels, with deductions for those times and that te of society and cultivation in which works have been pro- ced; to measure talents and weigh merit by fair standards: this forms a task which requires learning, perspicacity, me- ition, taste, and enlargement of mind.

A performance which carries us back to poetry, eloquence, history, philosophy, Aristotle, Longinus, &c. may perhaps heal and soothe the mind; and may afford a balm which is the more necessary at present, because hostile politics have rendered us ferocious, and have robbed us of many of the finer feelings of the human heart. We have indeed physics, mathematics, and chemistry, to humanize us: but the flowers which we are able to gather in these fields of science, although among the most noble, are not always of the most fragrant kind.

M. DE LA HARPE, a pupil of *Voltaire*, a *Philosophe*, and at first an abettor of the French Revolution, has abandoned the licentious principles of his master, and has become a powerful advocate for religion, morality, and social order. He has long distinguished himself among men of letters by his productions; he was a member of the Royal Academy before the Revolution; and it was allowed that he possessed a large portion of well-digested knowlege, a sound judgment, and a pure and refined taste. This we have long known: but we did not expect to find such extensive erudition, such discriminative judgment in analysing works in every species of polite literature, nor (at the present period of his life) such feeling, animation, and fire, as he has manifested in the decisions and translations contained in the performance before us.

In his preface to the first volume, the author gives an account of the establishment of the *Lycæum* in 1786, of its overthrow in 1789, and of its revival after the reign of *terror*. Respecting his present undertaking, he observes:

> ' The first confession, which it is incumbent on me to make, is that such an enterprise was beyond my powers, if it were equally necessary to explore all its several parts, many of which I was not qualified to investigate. I even venture to doubt whether it be in the power of any one man to execute the whole with equal ability.—We have, it is true, an infinite number of didactic books, and bibliographic collections, the merit of which it does not become me to dispute, since many of them have been of use to myself: but all treat particular objects, or are nothing more than nomenclatures or dictionaries for general things. This, I believe, is the first time either in France or in Europe, that a regular history of all the arts of thinking and imagination has been offered, from the time of Homer to the present period, in which nothing but mathematics and natural history are omitted. I cannot too often repeat how much I feel myself unequal to so immense a task; and if I am here deemed less modest than I wish to appear, I shall likewise be deemed more ignorant than I really am. To study, as I have done, any one object of this course, would be sufficient to persuade others, as it has convinced me, that perhaps a single article would require the life of one artist,

and a good artist, to treat it amply and give to it all its perfection. It will be seen how I was enveloped in this plan, and what efforts I have made during twelve years to fulfil its object to the utmost of my power; and I am inclined to hope that those, who best know what to expect, will be the most ready to excuse what must still be inevitably wanting. Such readers also will comprehend how much more it has cost me to compress than to extend my materials; and that to include them in twelve volumes, has not been one of my least difficulties. *

'This is not an elementary book for young students, nor a work of erudition for the learned. It includes whatever I have been able to extract of the flower, the juice, and the substance of every object of instruction which belongs to my undertaking. It is the completion of study for those who wish to advance farther than they have yet gone; and a supplement for persons in the great world, who have not leisure to compose one for themselves. I have been particularly ambitious that it should be of some use to orators and poets; and if they should allow the utility of the work, it will be some consolation to me, though it should not be so amusing to others as I could wish.'

In the *Introduction*, the author treats of 'general ideas concerning the art of writing; the reality and necessity of this art; the nature of precepts; the alliance of philosophy with the powers of invention; and the acceptation of the words *Taste* and *Genius*.'—These subjects are ingeniously discussed: but we perceive some expressions with which memory has furnished the writer, though it has failed to enable him to acknowlege the sources of them; as *sterile abondance*, from *Boileau*; *hérissé du pedantisme—hérissé du grec*, from *D'Alembert*; &c. &c. We do not always subscribe to the opinions here delivered, particularly those which relate to English authors; concerning whom, whether in peace or war with France, we are always to be on the *qui vive?*

Twelve or fourteen pages of this introduction are employed in discussing the acceptation of the words *Genius* and *Taste*. The antients, who personified every thing, assigned to all human beings an attendant spirit; a good or evil *genius*. In later times, genius was confined to mental powers of invention, combination, penetration, &c.: but, in the present day, it seems to be vulgarly applied in saying that a man of talents, of any odd or peculiar kind, is *a genius*. M. DE LA HARPE finds no such use made of this word, in the works of writers of the first class in the reign of Louis XIV.; and indeed it has always appeared to us a colloquial vulgarism in our own language, however respectable the authors may be who have used it. Even *Voltaire*, the lecturer thinks, (and we are of his opinion,) has applied the word *genius* unwarrantably:

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* He speaks of three volumes more, for *the philosophy of the eighteenth century*. We believe that vols. 8, 9, and 10, are already published: but we have not yet been able to obtain them.

> " *Ils sont encore au rang des beaux-ésprits,*
> *Mais exclus du rang des* genies."—
>
> 'Mong wits, though not a perfect blank,
> They ne'er with *geniuses* can rank.

This appellation, still worse in the plural than in the singular, might have been avoided, at least in English:

> 'Mong wits though none are perfect blanks,
> Not one with *men of genius* ranks.

An excellent passage is quoted from one of *Boileau's* prefaces; which, at the same time that it gives his idea of the word *genius*, softens the severity of his satire against men of partial talents and abilities, which he allowed them to possess in other pursuits than poetry, and sometimes even in such poetry as was not the immediate object of his censure.

' Rules (M. DE LA H. observes) have been often called the tyrants of genius; whereas rules are its best guides. *Taste* is said to be timid and pusillanimous; yet that alone teaches how to dare happily. It is a vulgar prejudice of ignorance, to say that, where *taste* is wanting, *genius* abounds. Young people, (who are easily persuaded of their superior disposition for any art or science,) whenever they are flattered by their friends with having *genius*, think that they have discovered a short road to knowlege and talents, and that study and practice are necessary only for dull plodders.

' *Taste* and *genius* are abstract terms, so vague and hard to be defined, that every one gives to them whatever weight or import he pleases; so that men often talk and write without understanding each other. They dispute whether writers of the first class had genius;—and if any be allowed to them, then, how much? is the question; and, still in this spirit of comparison, who had the most genius of any two specific writers? so that, the word *genius* not being clearly defined, this quality is frequently refused to the best writers, and granted to the worst.'

This Introduction, which is written with great spirit, was read at the first meeting of the patrons of the Lycæum-establishment, in 1786, attended by all the *flower* of Paris, male and female. By presenting our readers with the last paragraph of this address, they will be more fully acquainted with the lecturer's design than from the result of any inquiries which we have been able to make concerning the origin of the institution.

' The object of inviting you to this Lycæum has been a desire of combining every species of amusement and instruction; and can there

be

: noble and interesting incitement proposed to you than the which is to converse with the greatest literary men of every ı Homer to Voltaire, from Archimedes to Buffon ? It ›e mere vanity, if our nation glories in having known better ers the advantages of sociability, and all the pleasures of ıd cultivated minds. We shall now have an assembly in e lovers of learning will associate to study the master-pieces uman mind ; and from which the fair sex will not be ex- ho by their presence alone will oblige us to give to our lec- orm of instruction the most pleasing and attractive ; will from all who have received any education, that decorum and ection which are so necessary in literary assemblies ; and true feeling and quick sensibility, impart the highest charms reatest effect to those impressions in which they participate. se immortal authors whom time has consecrated will appear, ı the schools, enveloped in pedantry ; not, as in our theatres, ed by illusion and the magic of stage effect : but in their andeur, and in the simple majesty of their own genius. ir names will be uttered only with those testimonies of vene- iich will not stifle the confession that some faults exist, mixed ıany beauties. It is to you that they will apply for refuge to their glory, and in your hands they will deposit their ts in safety from mutilation. We are all equally their ad- d disciples. It is not by my feeble voice that their eulogium ronounced, but by your own admiration of their beauties ; ll think that I have attained the most desirable object of ion, if my thoughts should appear to you only as those ›wn feelings and reminiscences. Perhaps I may flatter my- I have not been wholly useless, if the few moments which pass here should induce you to consecrate others to the those classics which in our early youth we so little under- d which were designed to be felt at a more mature age, but ten neglected during a life of dissipation. We are never so ucted as by our own reflections ; by a habit of reading, and a books, which form our taste for what is beautiful and our hat is true ; and, to conclude with a precept of a great poet, so often clothed useful truths in charming verse,

"*S'occuper, c'est savoir jouir ;*
L'oisiveté pèse et tourmente.
L'ame est un feu qu'il faut nourrir,
Et qui s'éteint s'il ne s'augmente."

When occupied, we life enjoy ;
In idleness we 're dead ;
Mind is a fire which we destroy,
Unless by fuel it is fed.

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of Lectures. First Part. The *Antients.* Book I. Chap. I. *Analysis of the Poetic of Aristotle.*

The author, not improperly, begins his lectures by an explanation of Aristotle and Longinus, as the foundation of his critical remarks on the Greek writers. His commentary on Aristotle is lively, amusing, and calculated to please a mixed audience; who, probably, would suffer no verbal criticisms or conjectures concerning the inaccuracy of the text. Such remarks are designed for meditation in the closet: but before a superficial and theatrical audience, a musician may as well stop in the middle of a movement in his *solo*, to tune his instrument, as a lecturer to young gentlemen and ladies may stop to correct the text or propose a new reading in an antient author. Serious, solid, and profound critics innumerable have toiled at the text and translation of Aristotle, with various effect: but never with such full and complete success as our two learned countrymen, Messrs. Twining and Pye, at the same time (1789), without being apprised of each other's design. To these able and elegant versions we have done ample justice, in several Numbers of our Review, at the time of their appearance [*]. It would be unjust to M. DE LA HARPE to compare his ingenious and spirited account of this profound and philosophical writer, with the labours of our grave and critical translators; whose versions are qualified by their notes for the inspection of grammarians, philologers, antiquaries, and Hellenists. It must be remembered that the lectures before us were intended to amuse and attach a volatile part of the creation; and it appears, from the crouds which attended their delivery, and from the applause bestowed on them, that they completely fulfilled the author's design, till the fashion for literary lectures was superseded by that of Revolution, and all its horrors.

M. DE LA HARPE's eulogium on Aristotle is just and elegant; as are his translations and dramatic remarks. As he was himself an experienced writer for the stage, the study and practice of many years enabled him to observe nature and effects as well as the Stagirite; whom he allows to have had 'the strongest and most thinking head that nature ever organized.' He gives a list of Aristotle's other principal works, quotes *Buffon* on his *Natural History of Animals*, and draws a parallel between him and Plato. 'The philosophic austerity of Aristotle's style, and his display of method, were excessive; and hence dryness and diffusion are observable. Plato has been reproached with ornamenting his style too much; Aristotle, too little. Whoever resolves to read him must have determined to gain information. He is sometimes so dark, that he seems to give his readers credit for too much penetration; and sometimes his tediousness and repetitions appear to allow them too little.' After a short exordium, the lecturer proceeds to analyse the *Poetic.*

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[*] See Rev. N. S. vols. iv. vii. and xi. for Mr. Twining; and vol. xviii. for Mr. Pye.

The origin of dramatic representations, and our fondness for them, are ascribed by Aristotle to our natural propensity for imitation. We learn our vernacular language, our gestures, and every thing which we perform in society, by imitation; and Aristotle truly says that "objects which we behold with pain, if real, (such as hideous animals and dead bodies,) we view with pleasure in a picture."—Dramatic imitation, however, has its limits; and there is a choice which good sense, good taste, and propriety, will regulate. M. DE LA HARPE quotes *Voltaire* against us, for suffering duels, assassinations, battles, and executions in our representations:

On your rude stage where horrors reign,
  Scaffolds and gibbets, wheels and blood;
If naked truth you nude must feign,
  Let nobler sights our eyes illude. *Temple of Taste.*

Voltaire, however, adopted our "*murdering knife*" as often as his delicate nation would permit him, to avoid the dull *recit;* and though the lecturer is ready to join in the censure of our taste, he makes some pertinent remarks on the fashionable pretension to *sensibility*, which he truly says 'is one of the cant words which compose the dictionary of the day.'

The second original source of poetry, according to Aristotle, is our passion for measure, rhythm, and song; a taste not less natural than that of imitation.—A part of his treatise which has been lost, besides containing farther considerations on comedy, was to have spoken of dithyrambics, nomes, satires, and mimes; of all which nothing but the names remain.

In the course of the present commentary on the Poetic, the author rather relaxes the usual French rigour respecting the unities: but he intrepidly defends the drama from the degradation of prose. A friend of *Voltaire*, finding him with a pen in his hand, apologized for intruding on him, and would have retired. "*Come in, come in* (he replied), *I am only writing vile prose.*"—M. LA HARPE disputes the idea that the end of tragedy was, through the medium of pity and terror, to moderate and purify the passions by examples of their dire effects, which was long imagined to be Aristotle's meaning.—'No—(the lecturer says) it was to mitigate, temper, and modify our own pity and terror, by seeing such events imitated on the stage as would be too dreadful to behold, if real.' This explanation has been and will be often disputed: but M. DE LA H. is not answerable for its solidity, because he is not the original proposer of it *.

"Tragedy (says Aristotle) is the imitation of a grave action." Here the lecturer treats our comic-tragedies and those of the Spaniards with great contempt. How will he defend *les Comédies larmoyantes* of his own country?—Double and triple plots are anathematized: for the unity of fable seems still inviolable amid all the antient dramatic doctrines which have been abandoned by the moderns.

Music was one of Aristotle's six constituent parts of tragedy, which M. DE LA H. defines to be a free musical recitation in the dialogue, with measured music in the odes; and he says, 'if, instead of chant or melody, we substitute declamation, all the rest of the Stagirite's injunctions are fulfilled in French tragedy.'—Not only verse but rhyme, however, being necessary in French tragedy, that part of its composition has been so seldom perfect, that, of all their tragic writers, he admits that only *Racine* and *Voltaire* are constantly eloquent in verse; 'and this eloquence (he thinks) exalts their theatre above all others in the world.'

The lecturer translates and comments on such parts only of Aristotle's treatise as are practicable and even necessary in the construction of modern dramas; omitting those which are peculiar to the Greek theatre.—In one instance, alone, the Greeks formed a tragedy on the passion of love: (Phædra and Hippolitus:) but without love, says our author, 'what treasures would have been lost to the theatre, which are the produce of that passion! *Zaire*, *Tancrede*, *Ines*, *Ariane!*—and some others, still preserved by their merit in this respect, which supplies the place of so many excellencies, and compensates for so many faults, by causing our tears to flow.' If the female part of M. DE LA HARPE's audience were not pleased with this reflection, they were very ungrateful.

Whether a tragedy should end happily or disastrously is left undecided by the lecturer, though Aristotle very clearly pronounces for the latter termination. We rejoice, however, when a virtuous and favourite character is saved by natural and unexpected means from impending death or ruin; and all the melodramas of Metastasio end happily, as do many excellent French and English tragedies. Aristotle's decision, therefore, is regarded as a matter of taste, always disputable; and not as an absolute truth, though it is applicable on many occasions.

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* See Twining's translation of Aristotle's treatise on Poetry; p. 230, note 45, where the different opinions on this passage are amply discussed.

This analysis will be of little use or amusement to profound scholars, since the author touches on none of the difficult or doubtful passages; which criticism, as we have before observed, would probably not have been tolerated by youth and fashion. He has however given a just idea of the great critical powers of Aristotle, and of the wisdom of his precepts, in a lively and interesting manner; interspersed with such remarks and reflections of his own, as manifest his knowlege of the subject, and of the audience which he was addressing.

Chap. II. *Analysis of Longinus on the Sublime.*

'If any thing be unsusceptible of all analysis, and even of all definition, it is doubtless the Sublime. How indeed is it possible to define what a poet or orator can never effect by meditation, nor can be foreseen by those who read or hear; what is only produced in a sudden transport, and heard with enthusiasm; what, in short, divests of all reflection both the writer and the admiring multitude? How can we account for an impression which is at once the most lively and the most rapid of all? and what explication will not be equally cold and insufficient, when we attempt to explain what so violently shakes all the powers of the mind? Who is ignorant that, in extreme agitations, there is something above all expression; and that, when the soul is moved to a certain degree, it is tormented by the want of language to impart its sensations? If it be acknowleged that the faculty of feeling extends far beyond the power of expression, this truth is peculiarly applicable to the sublime; which excites in us all that is capable of excitement, and affords us the greatest pleasure which we are able to receive; that is, the exquisite enjoyment of all the sensibility with which we have been furnished by nature.'

Thus has M. DE LA H. prefaced his reflections on the nature of the Sublime, and on the manner in which the subject has been treated by Longinus. The kind of sublime which he has been describing, however, is not that which Longinus discusses; which is rather a lofty and elevated style throughout a composition, than a short, happy, unexpected sentence, or stroke of genius.—He then proceeds to give instances of what he regards as the highest and most impressive species of sublime.

'When old Horatius pronounced the patriotic sentence on his son,—"*Let him die!*" and all the spectators with one common shout applauded, if any one had asked them why they shouted? what could they have answered, except that they were transported and *beside themselves?*

'When Scipio, accused by the Tribunes, appeared in the assembly of the people, and defended himself only by saying: *Romans! it is twenty years this day since I vanquished Hannibal and subdued Carthage—let us go to the Capitol and thank the gods:*—the people burst into a general shout of acclamation, and followed him.

'Such sublimity is rare and instantaneous; for nothing that is extreme can be common and durable. It is a word, a stroke, a motion, or a gesture; and its effect is that of a flash of lightning or a clap of thunder. It is so devoid of art, that it is often found in those who have no conception of art. A woman of humble condition said to a priest who was explaining to her the obedience and resignation of Abraham, when required to sacrifice his son Isaac;—"*God Almighty would never have commanded a mother to perform such a sacrifice.*"

The author gives several other examples of this instantaneous sublime, before he begins his analysis of the treatise of Longinus; in the performance of which task, he has enlivened his criticisms by many entertaining and curious observations, and definitions of the sublime by writers of the first class in his own country: such as *Boileau*, *La Motte*, *Silvain*, *St. Marc*, *Rollin*, and *La Bruyere;* all of whom differ from each other without fully expressing the lecturer's idea of the sublime. We have not room for his nice discriminations: but we must allow that he defends his own opinion ably, and with good taste. *Boileau*'s translation of a sublime passage in Homer, quoted by Longinus from the beginning of the 20th Book of the Iliad, has not satisfied M. DE LA H.; yet he says, 'who will dare to attempt to perform it better?' Mr. Pope has certainly been more successful: but he has not yet been named, nor probably consulted. Indeed, Pope could not have been quoted in the Lycæum any more than Homer, in the original. The lecturer's objections to the learned and accurate *Boileau*'s version prove the extreme difficulty of a close translation of poetry; and they may serve to apologize for Pope's frequent paraphrases and attempts at equivalents, when his judgment and good taste convinced him of the impossibility of being literal with any success. The passages which M. DE LA H. has translated from Longinus, with great elegance, are indisputable proofs of the admirable Greek critic's profound judgment, feeling, and refined taste; and also of the truth with which Pope has characterised him as

"An ardent judge, who, zealous to his trust,
With warmth gives sentence, and is always just;
Whose own example strengthens all his laws,
And is himself the great sublime he draws."

An excellent English translation of Longinus was published in 1739, by Dr. Smith, whose version of Thucydides also gained him great reputation: but such changes have insensibly crept into our language during the last 60 years, that, though faithful, the English Longinus seems now to want elegance.

Chap. III. *Of the French Language, compared with the antient Languages.*—'From the sublime to grammar is a prodigious descent! but to good minds, whatever contributes to instruction is always interesting.' Thus begins the apology for entering on so dry a subject. This lecture will doubtless afford little amusement to the generality of hearers or readers; yet it is composed with spirit, and will not only be interesting but instructive to the curious in philology. All the French poets, from *Boileau* and *Racine* to *Voltaire*, except *Belloy*, complain of the defects of their language and versification: *Voltaire* more frequently than any of the rest. In his Epistle to Horace, he says:

> " *Nôtre langue un peu sèche et sans inversions,*
> *Peut-elle subjuguer les autres nations?*"
>
> As our language is dry, and it owns no inversion,
> Of its rivals how can it effect the subversion?

M. DE LA HARPE answers that this is already done: but we, in our turn, may be allowed to ask in what *poetical* works the French have vanquished other nations? Not in the *Epopeia*, nor in blank verse. *Voltaire* more modestly confines its merit within its proper limits:

> " Though clearness, grace, exactitude, we boast,
> To strive with Greece or Rome is labour lost."

The patriotic lecturer takes care to inform his audience that *Voltaire*, when he mentions Italy or Rome, means the *antient*—but we are not sure of this. The Italian language is certainly superior to the French in heroic verse: but M. DE LA H. seems to be very little acquainted with Italian literature, and still less with the English. *Voltaire*, after having justly celebrated the grammatical clearness of his language, adds:

> " But can a happy clearness be our plea
> Against a tiresome uniformity?"

However dry this chapter may appear to the majority of readers, the comparative analysis of the French with Greek and Latin will not be unamusing to classical scholars. The numerous particles, articles, pronouns, and auxiliary verbs in modern languages, instead of varying the terminations of substantives and tenses of verbs, multiply words without augmenting the sense; and these articles, being all monosyllables, add but little to the harmony of a language either in prose or verse: but these disadvantages have been common to all modern dialects, and are often the subject of complaint among philologists.

Rousseau has demonstrated, in his *Lettre sur la Musique Françoise*, the unfitness of the French Language for music; and M. DE LA H. as clearly proves its defects in poetry, from its allowing no difference (for want of inversions) between prose and verse, except the rhymes. He even goes so far as to assert that, without rhyme, good prose is verse, and verse is prose; and indeed, though the English are often pleased with the wit and sentiments of French poetry, we but seldom, very seldom, feel or remark the beauty of the verse.

'The language of the Greeks, (says this writer,) who were as superior to the Latins as these are to the moderns, was wholly poetic. Most of its words paint to the eye and to the imagination, and the sound conveys the idea. Its compounds enabled them to include in a single term many words and many ideas. With one word they could express a *helmet* which reflects the rays of light on all sides, a *hero* covered with a plume of different coloured feathers, and a thousand other objects too tedious to be detailed. All our scientific terms which express compound ideas are derived from the Greek: as geography, astronomy, mythology, &c. They sacrificed so much to Euphony (another compound, implying sweetness of sound,) that it was allowable to add or retrench many letters in the same word, especially in poetry, for the convenience of the measure and the sweetness of the sound. The dialects of different nations of Greece also supplied various delicate terminations to nouns and verbs; all which a poet was permitted to use at his pleasure. Is it without reason, then, that the Greek is allowed to be the most beautiful of all languages, and to possess the most harmonious poetry?'

We have translated this passage as a specimen of the author's manner of treating the subject: but we can afford no space for farther extracts or remarks on this chapter; except to inform our readers that the lecturer continues for many pages to point out the radical defects of the French language in writing verse, 'even in the hands of so admirable a poet as the Abbé *Delille*; whose translation of the Georgics of Virgil, in spite of these defects, is the best in the language; and which the continued beauty of the versification, and its purity of taste, have ranked among classical works of the highest order.'

Chap. IV. *Of the Epic Poetry of the Antients.*

Section I. *Of the Greek Epopee.*—This subject has been so amply treated by P. *Bossu* and by Mr. Pope, that little seems to be left for M. DE LA HARPE that is new. He has, however, not only treated Tasso with candour, (contrary to the usual conduct of his countrymen,) but has ably defended him from the censures of those who have condemned his machinery and magical agency. He disputes with Father *Bossu* the necessity of an epic poem being allegorical; or that the poet should begin by establishing a moral truth, and imagining an action by which it may be developed and illustrated, and should afterward adopt an historical fact and personages already known. Then, assigning motives for the plan and conduct of Homer's poems different from those suggested by *Bossu*, the lecturer comes to the person and works of the great bard himself; and by examining his beauties and defects, with the criticisms good and bad which he has undergone, he gains an opportunity of successively developing his own ideas of the construction and conduct of the antient Melopee, or Epic Poem. First, he begins by *Homer and the Iliad.*

As these lectures were not addressed to the learned, (who may be supposed to know as much as M. DE LA HARPE about Homer, and antient literature in general,) but to *dilettanti* scholars, and ladies, they must have been not only very interesting but instructive. Indeed the author has collected, from a wide extent of reading, so much curious information concerning the father of poetry and his works; he has combined it with so much learning, spirit, taste, and ingenuity; and he has thrown such a pleasing light on the subjects which he treats; that these discourses will amuse, if not instruct, all Europe.

Concerning Homer himself, the writer's information and reflections are as ample as his materials and imagination (still lively, though repressed by time and experience) could render them. As they are too long for insertion here, we can only observe that the fabulous accounts of *Homer*'s birth (1000 years before Christ, and 300 after the siege of Troy) are enumerated, but treated with due disregard. Suidas makes the number of cities, which claimed the honour of Homer's birth, amount to 90.

In defence of poetry, M. DE LA HARPE endeavours to account for Pythagoras sending the bard to Tartarus, and Plato banishing him from his republic, by supposing that he propagated false ideas of the Divinity:—but, says the author,

'Let us rely on this simple and plausible apology, that the duties of a poet and a philosopher are very different; that, if the latter be required to elevate his ideas above those of the vulgar which it is his business to correct, the poet is only expected skilfully to represent things as they are. He is the historian and not the reformer of nature; and to those who are not contented with the gods of Homer, we may say: What would you have had him do? could he frame a religion different from that of his country, and delineate other manners than those which he knew to subsist?'

The lecturer apologizes for the poet's heroes on the same principle:

'It is indisputable that, in those heroic times, muscular force was the chief qualification of combatants; who being covered with brass and iron, he who could easily support the strongest and most weighty armour, give the most vigorous blow, and pierce the cuirass and buckler of his antagonist with the greatest force, was a formidable being, a hero. This quality, once acknowleged, settled his rank; and thus we may account for our frequently finding one very brave warrior in the Iliad confessing that another is his superior, and retreating from his presence.—In Homer, Æneas is not ashamed to say to Achilles: *I know very well that thou art more valiant than I am* - which means no more than, I know that thou art the strongest. It is true that he adds: *yet if some god protect me, I shall vanquish thee*; and this is the most general principle throughout the Iliad; every thing proceeds from the gods, strength, wisdom, and success.—Achilles says to Patroclus: *Avoid attacking Hector; he has always near him some guardian god who protects him.* There is not one hero in the Iliad, Achilles excepted, who does not retreat before another. Those who are the most brave (Diomede and Ajax) are distinguished by retiring fighting; and it is observable, for the honour of the Poet, that, notwithstanding this divine assistance, which seems to confound all degrees of heroism, he preserves a grandeur of character in all his personages, suitable to the representation which he gives of them.'

M. de la Harpe defends Homer, and combats *La Motte* and the faction against the antients, at length and with ability. His synopsis of the whole Iliad is composed with accuracy, taste, and feeling:—he laments that there has not yet appeared a translation in the French language, which could afford those, who are unacquainted with the original, the least confirmation of the truth of his assertions in favour of the poet:—he has himself translated some few fragments very elegantly, and has inserted others by *Boileau* which have great force;—and he traces the dispersion of Homer's works through Greece, from the earliest period on record, to the time of Ptolemy Philometor and Aristarchus, 150 years B C., whose edition surpassed all former impressions, and is that which is come down to us.

The Odyssey.—Though the author has bestowed 43 pages on the Iliad, he dispatches the Odyssey in 11, and these are chiefly filled with censure. He appears to see nothing but defects in this poem. Longinus indeed places it much below the Iliad; yet he treats Homer with respect: but M. de la H., after all his enthusiastic raptures, seems in analysing the Odyssey not only to lose all his veneration, but all his candour: speaking more harshly of the great poet than even *La Motte* has done respecting the Iliad. In that poem, all the several states of Greece were united in a war; the Odyssey describes single states, society, hospitality, and individual adventures, in times of peace. Pope says that the Odyssey is more useful to the community than the Iliad, because it describes whatever is charming in a quiet life.

Sect. II. *The Latin Epopee.*—Virgil, in course, is the hero of this section: but, judging him by epic rules, and not by the beauty of his style and the harmony of his numbers, M. de

LA HARPE places him infinitely below his model, Homer. He does not allow him to be the inventor of a single incident, and scarcely of a verse, in his poem. He is not only accused of imitating Homer in his plan, his battles, and his principal events, as well as in his verses, but of plagiarisms from the old poets, Ennius, Pacuvius, Accius, and Suevius, and from his contemporaries Lucretius, Catullus, Tibullus, Varius, and Furius. It is confessed, however, that the 3d, 4th, and 6th books are great and admirable productions. The lecturer rests the excellence of Virgil on the constant perfection of his style, 'to surpass which seems impossible. It is at once the delight and despair of all who wish to cultivate poetry: so that, if he has not equalled Homer in invention, variety, and constant interest, he has surpassed him in the beauty of particular parts, and in his fine taste in embellishing his narratives.'

Silius Italicus, Statius, and Claudian, are here placed very low in the scale of perfection, and but few words are bestowed on them. Lucan, however, has not been treated in so summary a manner; and the writer seems to estimate his merits and defects very justly, except in giving a long *prose* quotation from his Pharsalia.

As an appendix to the Epopee, we find a section on Hesiod, Ovid, Lucretius, and Manilius. The author devotes but a short article to each; yet enough is said to manifest his judgment and taste in characterizing them. We are sorry that our limits forbid an extract from his account of Ovid, whom he seems to have put in his true place. He allows Lucretius to be a poet only in his digressions, and says that the physiological part of his work is nothing more than the philosophy of Epicurus versified.

Chap. V. *Of Antient Tragedy.*

Sect. I. *General idea of the Theatre of the Antients.*—The chief business of this section is to combat the opinions of Father *Brumoy* in favour of the antients; and to prove that the modern dramatists, if in some instances they be not comparable to the antients, have more difficulties to encounter in the inferiority of their language, and in composing for a more experienced and fastidious audience, who are always disposed to judge rather than to feel.

Of the three great tragic writers of antient Greece, the lecturer delivers an ample and well-digested account: pointing out their several merits, and (according to modern notions) their defects. He enumerates the surviving plays of these great fathers of the drama, and gives a short analysis of each: but he seems not to be impressed with due reverence for the bold and original conceptions of the venerable Eschylus, the

M[illegible] Angelo of the Greek stage. His compositions are [illegible]

[illegible] judicious and [illegible] after the [illegible] of the insanity [illegible] has at all times been [illegible] to excite interest,—he adds: '[illegible] among the English, but with more [illegible] plays.' On what [illegible]—unless he takes the [illegible] who says, "they are [illegible] English novels in which [illegible] has been [illegible] in order to heighten distress;—but in many [illegible] plays, such as Hamlet, Macbeth, King Lear, V[illegible] derangement of mind has been used with great effect.—In other respects, the examination of Ajax is a piece of dramatic criticism which deserves high praise.

Sect. IV. Euripides is not in favour with the lecturer. If the dramatic laws laid down in France are infringed, nothing is right; and no allowance is made for distance of time, or national taste. Except in calling him a barbarian, Euripides is treated with as little respect as Shakspeare; whose merit the French will never understand, nor know why we are so attached to him. They think that only his wildness and irregularities attract us; not having the least conception that we admire him for his strong humour and support of characters in comedy, and for his original and beautiful sentiments on every subject which is interesting to human nature in tragedy.

The Helen of Euripides, it must be granted, is somewhat open to ridicule. Though, in the tragedy of Hecuba, that disastrous beauty is allowed by the poet to have been at Troy, during the siege, and to have been restored to Menelaus for punishment; yet in the play, by the same author, to which he gives the name of Helen, it is denied that she ever had been there, or had a connection with Paris. M. de la Harpe's account of this drama will be deemed flippant and irreverent by the exclusive adorers of antiquity; yet his want of respect for Euripides in this article is amply compensated by the just encomium which he bestows on the Hecuba; from which he has given an excellent translation of several admirable speeches, and an interesting whole scene, of considerable length. 'Perhaps, (he says,) there is nothing extant of any writer, so touching and perfect as the first three acts of this tragedy.— The speech of Hecuba in the original seems to unite every species of eloquence: the tenderness of the mother, and the dignity of a queen mixed with the affliction of a suppliant, with the power of interesting even the self-love of an enemy. The fortitude of Polixena is exquisitely contrasted with the despair of the mother; and the recital of the death of that princess is worthy of the whole beautiful and affecting scene.' The Iphigenia in Aulis is mentioned with the greatest respect by this author, as built on a fable at once probable, interesting, and dignified; the conduct (he says) is natural, the characters are strongly marked, and they are delineated with truth, discrimination, and energy. It is allowed that *Racine*, with his timidity and delicacy of taste, in selecting this drama among the works of Euripides, had little more to do than translate and exhibit it in beautiful French verse.

The character of Euripides,—the parallel between him and Sophocles,—and between the antients and moderns in the dramatic art,—are masterly, and spring from much reflection and experience. The translations of speeches and scenes, also, from each of the great tragic writers, are such as do great credit to M. DE LA HARPE.

Of the Roman tragic drama, the author says but little; and indeed there is little to be said. All the remains of it are clumsy imitations of the Greeks, in which a fine passage now and then occurs: but as for invention, character, conduct, or theatrical effect, they are not to be found in the dramas of Seneca; which however, from respect for antiquity, have been often imitated and pillaged by the moderns.

We have paid more attention to M. DE LA HARPE's account of the Greek dramas, than we shall be able to bestow on any remaining part of his voluminous work, because they form a precious portion of antient literature, which is much less generally known than any other of the higher classes; and because they contain such genuine representations of antient manners, customs, and illustrious characters, as are not to be found elsewhere.

It did not appear to us necessary to attempt a translation, either from the original or from the French, of any of the passages in the Greek tragedies particularized or quoted by M. DE LA H. because the reader will find them in Mr. Potter's valuable translations of all the remaining works of Eschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides [*]; and he may gain an idea of the several excellencies of these venerable dramatists, as also of Menander, in the periodical paper called the *Observer*, written by a judge whose experience and success in theatrical concerns give great weight to his opinions.

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[*] See our General Index.

Having now arrived at the end of the first volume, we must suspend our remarks on this interesting publication.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *De la Littérature, &c. i. e.* On Literature, considered in its Relation to social Institutions. By Madame De Stael Holstein. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 400 and 300. Paris. 1800. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 12s.

It is perhaps scarcely necessary to observe to our readers, that the writer of the present work is the daughter of the celebrated M. *Necker*: but it may be information to them to be told that the object of it is, to analyse the moral and political causes which affect the spirit of literature; to point out the gradual developement of the human faculties, the slow but continued progress of the mind in philosophy, and its rapid but interrupted success in the arts; and to inquire into the influence which the revolution has already had on the literature of France, with the probable effects that may result from it, if ever order and liberty, morality and republican independence, should be united and established.

The first part of the work contains a moral and philosophical analysis of Greek and Latin literature; reflections on the consequences which have resulted to the human mind from the irruptions of the northern nations, from the establishment of Christianity, and from the revival of learning; and a rapid sketch of the distinguishing features of modern literature: with some more detailed observations on the most celebrated works in the Italian, German, English, and French languages, considered chiefly with a view to the relations which subsist between the political state of a country, and the prevailing spirit of its literature.—The second part relates to the actual state of learning in France since the revolution, and to its future probable progress.

Madame De Stael excludes the physical sciences from her definition of literature; comprehending within it, only poetry, eloquence, history, and moral philosophy. Her favourite doctrine is that of the progressive improvement of mankind in the philosophical parts of literature, or those which principally relate to a knowlege of the moral character of man; and which she conceives to be capable of an almost indefinite degree of improvement, while the works of imagination have their prescribed limits of perfection. In support of her opinion, she instances the successive productions of Greek literature, from

Homer to the age of Aristotle; and she attempts also to shew that, throughout the annals of Roman learning, whatever changes the arts may have undergone, philosophy has maintained a continued and uninterrupted progress. If we have no objection to admit these positions, the boldness of the following somewhat startles us; namely, that even the irruption of the barbarians, which trampled under foot all that was valuable in art and science, and spred a darkness over the land for the space of ten ages,—even this calamitous event contributed to the propagation of knowlege. We shall give an extract, to shew the point of view under which the fair writer considers this part of the subject.

'It appears to me that the study of history must convince us that all important events tend to the same result, to universal civilization. We see that, in every age, the advantages of social order have been extended to some new people; and that war, notwithstanding all its evils, has often increased the dominion of knowlege. The Romans civilized the world which they subdued. It was necessary that the light of instruction should first break from some bright point, and appear in a country of small extent, like Greece; and it was necessary that, a few centuries afterward, a nation of warriors should bind a part of the world under the same laws, in order to civilize while they conquered. The nations of the north, even in terminating for a time the reign of letters and of arts in the south, acquired some rays of that illumination which had been imparted to the vanquished; and the inhabitants of more than one half of Europe, who till then had been strangers to a state of civilization, became partakers of its blessings. Thus, time discovers to us a settled plan in the consequences of events which, at first, appeared to be the mere effect of chance; and one idea, which is invariably the same, arises from the abyss of centuries and of facts.

'Undoubtedly, the incursions of the barbarians was a great misfortune for those nations which were contemporaneous with that revolution: but this event itself tended to the propagation of knowlege. The enervated natives of the south, mingling with the northern race, derived from them that degree of vigour, and communicated to them that sort of pliability, which should combine for the perfection of the intellectual faculties.'

As a confirmation of the truth of her opinion, that human reason continued to develope itself during the darkness of the middle ages, Madame DE STAEL adduces the example of *Bacon*, *Machiavel*, and *Montaigne*; authors who have far surpassed in moral and political philosophy, and in the sciences, the most celebrated men of antiquity; and who appeared almost immediately after that long interval, and at the period of the revival of letters. To render this argument conclusive, she has recourse to a principle, the propriety of which may perhaps be reasonably doubted; viz. that a man of genius excels his contemporaries by a few degrees only. There is nothing in the character of genius itself which will justify this supposition; for, if genius be the possession of some or all of the faculties of the mind, in a high degree of perfection; and if a man of genius be that man whose perception is most acute, whose memory is most comprehensive and ready, whose imagination is most prolific, whose taste is most delicate, and whose judgment is most discriminating; there is no reason for concluding that genius may not rise far above the level of the average intellect of a country. Though perseverance and industry may be necessary for a successful exertion of the faculties of the mind; and though the importance of their effects may be increased by the quantity and excellence of the materials already collected, on which they may have to work; yet it appears as rational to suppose that mental vigour necessarily springs from the existence of contemporary knowlege, as that the bow of Ulysses was the cause of his strength, or that the weight of the ox invigorated the muscles of Milo. We conceive, however, that there is an intrinsic and original difference in the mental faculties of different men, which does not depend altogether on the circumstances of education: but which, whether we consider the mind as material, or as "a portion of the breath divine," proceeds from a greater or less degree of perfection in the organs by which it acts. Neither does the principle above mentioned seem justified by any appeal to fact; for what contemporary productions approach with any appearance of gradation to the philosophical works of Bacon, to the paintings of Michael Angelo, to the *Principia* of Sir Isaac Newton, to the epic poetry of Milton, or to the genius of Shakspeare? As a Messiah was necessary for the elevation of the moral world, notwithstanding the fancied natural progress of human reason in improvement; so it would appear that human knowlege would also keep nearly the same level, if some superior genius did not now and then arise, and discover a point on which to raise the intellectual world. Whether or not the human mind has, in fact, continued uninterruptedly and gradually to develope itself, it may be asked whether the establishment of Christianity has not promoted the civilization of mankind more powerfully than the natural progress of reason?

It would carry us much beyond our limits, were we to follow the fair author while she is investigating, throughout the first part of this work, the various characters which different governments impart to eloquence; the moral ideas which this or that religion excites and unfolds in the human mind; the effects which are produced on the imagination by the credulity of a people; the degree of civilization most favorable to the influence and improvement of literature; the different changes produced both in the writings and the manners of a country, by the state of female existence, both before and since the establishment of christianity; and, in a word, the universal progress of knowlege as the simple effort of the succession of time. We shall therefore content ourselves with remarking, that Madame DE STAEL appears to be peculiarly attached to that refined species of philosophy which is so prevalent in German literature, and which seems to have attracted the attention and guided the pens of some modern authors of our own nation;—a philosophy which boasts of attaining a profound knowlege of the secrets of the human heart; which, according to this lady, elevates the moderns so far above the antients; and which gives to the poetry of the former more sensibility and interest, a greater power of persuasion to their eloquence, and a more dignified, energetic, and scientific character to their history. Another favorite idea, very frequently recurring in the pages of this work, is that this species of philosophy is fostered and promoted by melancholy and sorrow, more than by any other cause. As Madame DE STAEL is under the influence of these opinions, we do not wonder at the terms of praise and admiration in which she speaks of the celebrated Werter of Goethe; which she considers as '*le livre par excellence*' among the Germans, and as ranking with the *chefs-d'œuvres* of other languages.

In the Second Part of this work, after having briefly pointed out the injurious effects of the Revolution on the manners, the literature, and the philosophy of France, the author proceeds to inquire what modifications and ameliorations may be expected in these points, if liberty and political equality should be established. Among the causes which are said to have impeded the progress of literature since the revolution, are, the prevalence of a most revolting vulgarity of manners, the domination of a depraved and immoral taste, and the absence of all literary emulation.—The fair writer next considers what effects will be produced by republican institutions and manners, on works of imagination, and more particularly on theatrical productions. In this part, she appears to us to refine too much in her observations on the effects which the antient *regime*, and its social institutions, had on the comic taste and the turn for ridicule which were so conspicuous among the French.

In the remaining chapters of the work, relative to philosophy, literary women, the style of writers and magistrates, and eloquence, we have met with nothing that is strikingly new or worthy of observation. We shall therefore conclude our notice of these volumes with a few general observations.

We were disappointed in not finding a more detailed and particular account of the literary and moral state of France. Prudential reasons may perhaps have restrained the author's pen: but the work would certainly have been rendered more entertaining and instructive by such an insertion, than it can possibly be by a slight sketch of actual circumstances; and by an amplification, however ingeniously executed, of arguments and opinions which are become almost common place; or of imaginary results from events which may never exist, and of supposed effects of combinations which may never arise. In general, the subject is treated with considerable ingenuity, but without much display of novelty. Madame DE STAEL appears to labor to attain an antithetical and pointed mode of expression; blending, according to her own ideas of the perfection of style, addresses to reason with appeals to sentiment, and with sallies of imagination.

ART. III. *L'Homme des Champs; ou les Géorgiques Françoises: i.e.* The Country Gentleman, or French Georgics. By JAMES DELILLE. 8vo. pp. 300. Basle. 1800. Imported by Debrett, London.

THE booksellers on the continent had such entire confidence in the reputation of the author of this poem, and in the public eagerness to peruse it, that, as soon as the MS. was procured, fifteen editions were printed at once in Paris, from very high to very low prices, and 30,000 copies were sold in less than a fortnight*! Though the Abbé DELILLE is an emigrant, a voluntary exile, and has remained a firm friend to the antient religion and government of his country, all parties in France are equally desirous of reading his productions; and they are in few things so unanimous, as in pronouncing that he is the best poet of whom France can at present boast, or perhaps ever possessed, in heroic verse. No poetry in a foreign language approaches the compositions of Mr. Pope so much as that of the Abbé DELILLE, who has confessedly made the English bard his model; and who resembles him in every respect which the different structure of French verse will permit: in smoothness, accuracy, and good taste; we dare not say in force, which perhaps the genius of his language will not admit. Pope never scrupled to borrow a good thought wherever he could meet with it, in prose or in verse: but he borrowed always to polish and to improve. If he found it in base metal, he set it in diamonds. The Abbé's imitations and adoptions of the thoughts of others are at least equally numerous. As the late learned Dr. Warton would not allow Pope even to be a poet, but denied him the gift of *invention*, though he readily granted that he was a fine versifier and an excellent moralist; he would certainly have had equal reason for disputing the originality of the Abbé DE LILLE: but he must also have been obliged to concede that, in spite of deductions and draw-backs, the verses of the Virgil of France afford the highest gratification to readers of taste and discernment.

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* Various editions, in 12mo. 8vo. &c. are imported in London.

In a well-written preface, the author of this poem defends his *Gardens** (which he has been so lately cultivating with great diligence and care) against some objections that have been made to the subject, as being cold and uninteresting; objections equally applicable to the Georgics of Virgil, and to the French Georgics under consideration. The Abbé also truly observes that, for nearly half a century, the drama, fugitive pieces, and novels, have absorbed all attention to literature in France. 'The predominant taste for light detached pieces is only encouraging frivolity among a people who are too justly censured for levity, which they have indeed preserved in the midst of the most terrible events. In this habit alone there has been no revolution. We have been observed to be jocose on the most atrocious crimes, at which we ought to shudder; ridicule has supplied the place of fortitude; and this wretched people, so determined to be merry, might say with one of our dramatic satirists:

> "I've laugh'd, and now I'm quite disarm'd."

With regard to romances and dramatic works, the author says that the exclusive passion for them is still more dangerous; since they accustom the mind to violent sensations, so hostile to mild and moderate sentiments, which give birth to those benevolent emotions that are so essential to virtue and happiness.—He defends composition on moral and didactic subjects; gives an entertaining history of the difficulties which he had to encounter in translating the Georgics of Virgil, which even *Voltaire* and the younger *Racine* once thought to be insurmountable; and takes the opportunity of acquainting his readers, out of France, with the great success of that enterprize in the fame which it has procured for him, of the most flattering kind.

Respecting the present Georgics, he informs us that they have nothing in common with those of Virgil which have already appeared, any more than with other French poems, particularly the Seasons of Cardinal *de Bernis*: but that the title of Georgic is used in a more extensive sense than its common acceptation.—The work is divided into four cantos, all relative to rural enjoyments, though each has a particular object for its theme; and the author has given, in this preface, an argument to each canto, which we shall here abridge, and then speak of the poem itself.

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* See our Review for 1799, vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 294.

In Canto I. an intelligent and wise man, whose senses are more refined and whose eyes are more exercised than those of ordinary people, describes the variety of rich decorations, rural scenes, and diversity of enjoyments, which the country presents to view. Knowing the sources of his own felicity, he endeavours to spread happiness around him, which he finds to be increased by participation; and he augments the virtue and happiness both of old age and of infancy. This part of the poem was often read at the French academy before the revolution, particularly at the reception of the unfortunate M. *De Malesherbes*.

'I ought to avow (says the Abbé) that all the maxims of benevolence and love for the people were applauded in the most lively manner by those who held the first offices in the state. I have cancelled nothing which I then said, in recommending the poor to the rich, and weakness to power. There will be found likewise in this canto about sixty verses borrowed from different English poets; but more in imitation than in close translation. In the Stag Chase, is an imitation of M. *De St. Lambert* *; and, writing without books, I cannot be sure that some other reminiscences will not be discovered by those who regard such little faults as great crimes.'

The IId Canto paints the useful pleasures of the cultivator,—not the common husbandman, but the gentleman and experimental farmer; who triumphs over obstacles, improves the productions of nature, and the breed of domestic animals; naturalizes foreign productions and foreign cattle; forces rocks to nourish the vine, torrents to spin silk and temper metals; knows how to create and correct soils, to cut canals for agriculture and commerce, to fertilize the most arid lands by irrigation, and to drain and render profitable bogs, morasses, and overflowing rivers; and finally who diffuses agriculture over the whole country, sometimes as a goddess disseminating blessings, and sometimes like a fairy lavishing her enchantments.

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* In the notes to the first canto, Sir John Denham is slightly mentioned as having been imitated in the description of the chase: but it appears, from the long extracts given in the notes, that the Stag Hunt has not only been imitated from Denham's Cooper's Hill by the Abbé himself, but by all the poets whom he has quoted; namely, *Roucher* in his *Months*; *Vaniere* in his *Prædium Rusticum*; *St. Lambert* in his *Seasons*; and *Thomson* in his *Autumn*: but by the last less than by the rest.

Canto III. is devoted to the observations of the naturalist; who, surrounded by the works and wonders of nature, in applying himself to the investigation of them, renders his walks more interesting, his home and his leisure hours more amusing, and supplies himself with a collection of natural curiosities, not from distant regions, but from his own grounds. 'The subject of this canto is the most fertile of all, and perhaps a more new and extensive range was never opened to poetry.'

Lastly, the IVth Canto teaches the rural poet how to celebrate the phænomena and riches of Nature, in verse that is worthy of the theme. In describing the art of painting rural beauties, the author has himself endeavoured to seize the most majestic and interesting features:

> 'The translator of Virgil's Georgics, in composing his own, has often been afflicted by melancholy resemblances with his model. Like Virgil, he has written on rural labours and pleasures, when his country was desolated at once by a foreign and a civil war; like him, he has turned his eyes from carnage and destruction, to cast them on the mild images of the primary art of man, and the innocent delights of the field. Augustus, when in peaceful possession of the yet bleeding Rome, employed himself in reviving agriculture, and good morals, which are always in its train; he engaged Virgil to publish his Georgics: they appeared with the peace, and augmented its charms. It is a happy omen for his imitators: may this poem impress humane sentiments and virtuous affections on minds which are become fierce by long familiarity with terrors, and ulcerated by acute sufferings. The indulgent reader will judge with the less severity of a work which is composed in unhappy times: it would have been more polished and less defective, if the author had written it with a tranquil mind, and had sustained no other loss than that of his fortune!'

In the opening of the poem, the author explains his plan much better than by the title; which in the original seems to be a misnomer, and to which indeed our language furnishes no equivalent. We imagined, till we had advanced in the perusal of the work, that *l'homme des champs* must imply a husbandman, a farmer, a cultivator of the fields: but no one of those titles stretches to the full extent of the author's design. Nor does the term *Georgic* suit his poem so well as that of Virgil: since the Abbé seems to take up farming just where Virgil had left it. Addison defines γεωργικον to be "the science of husbandry, put into a pleasing dress, and set off with all the beauties and embellishments of *Poetry*:" but the present author extends his descriptions to the wonders of nature, to mechanical discoveries, and to natural history in general, as he declares in his exordium; of which we shall endeavour to give our readers the *sense*, though not the *sound:*

> ' Boileau, with magisterial voice, has sung
> The rigid laws whence verse divine has sprung;
> The Mantuan Muse the mind to culture lifts,
> Aids Nature's self, and hastens all her gifts:
> But can enjoyment be reduc'd to art?
> Can laws didactic rural joys impart?
> No, no!—our Muse prescribes no rules austere,
> But tries to smooth the sage's brow severe:
> Her only aim is Nature to pourtray
> In all her smiling charms and colours gay;
> To blazon beauties of her form and mien,
> Which to be lov'd need only to be seen.
> Inspire my lays, sweet scenes of blest retreat,
> Of truth and innocence the tranquil seat!
> To paint the pleasures which the country yields,
> The rills, the groves, and Ceres' furrow'd fields,
> Where joys innoxious, where true blessings flow,
> Was ne'er attempted yet by virtue's foe.'

Enlarging on the resources which a wise man may find in a country life, in improving his health, his mind, and his estate, the Abbé says:

> ' These are the pleasures pure which none can prize,
> Except the calm, the virtuous, and the wise.'—

Suspecting, however, that it will be urged against the higher classes in France under the old government, that they had no taste for a country life; and that, if ever they visited their *chateaux*, it was in state and magnificence, without relinquishing the garb, expence, or manners of a court;—he exclaims:

> ' Inveigh not now in steril maxims vain,
> Nor give to fallen grandeur useless pain;
> Treat not as guilty of enormous crimes,
> Each poor Lucullus of our former times;
> Waud'ring in mis'ry on some foreign shore,
> Or round his plunder'd Hall, where lux'ry is no more.'

Though unable to do justice to the euphony of the author's versification, we cannot but wish to convey his thoughts to our English readers, when they appear remarkably beautiful and striking. Unluckily, in the French Alexandrine, besides its doggrel cadence, there are two syllables more than in our heroic verse; which circumstance renders the transfusion of the author's ideas, line for line, extremely difficult,—sometimes, perhaps, impossible; and frequently to multiply lines would be too paraphrastical, and would wholly rob the author of his merit of compression. We cannot afford room for long extracts, to give our readers an idea of the regular march of the author: but we shall detach some illustrative thoughts, which we think so meritorious in the original, that they will soon become verbial in the author's own country.

On the subject of a restless fine gentleman's want of taste the joys of the country, the Abbé says:

' A change of place, he thinks, his hopes will crown;
But finds no joys in country nor in town.
Yet blame not these;—vices his heart devour.
A vase impure will render nectar sour.'

On benevolence and social attachments, we find many cham- lines:

' In town or country whether we reside,
The sweetest bliss is that which we divide.
Happy or wretched, rich or wanting pelf,
He lives but half who lives but for himself.
And you! strangers to joys the country yields,
Assist your country, and you'll love its fields!——
In rustic scenes wide gape the wretch's wounds,
In cities vast confusion all confounds:
But round the *chateau*, cottages and cells
Near idle wealth, where active mis'ry dwells,
Th' afflicting contrast ever full in sight,
Against the happy generates spleen and spite.
Yet, clad in kindness, wealth can spleen disarm,
And Envy's venom'd snakes to sleep can charm,
Correct the seasons, scarcity controul,
Relieve the body's wants, and win the soul.'—

Domestic games are exactly described:—but here, " pure cription holds the place of sense," for they seem scarcely thy of the dignity of verse. The picture of the stag-hunt pirited: but Somerville's *Chace* is still unrivalled in any lange. An excellent eulogy on the fine arts then occurs; visits in autumn from old friends and relations, with a de- ption of the rising generation, imitated from Gray's Ode Eton College, have furnished beautiful lines.

The Pastor or Parish Priest is an admirable portrait at full gth: but we can allow room for little more than the bust.

——' Behold the pious rural priest attend,
The holy man, whose labours have no end;
His flock uniting in their pray'rs to God,
To bliss eternal pointing out the road.—
Man he receives emerging from the womb,
Conducts through life, and follows to the tomb.—
By bounty, prudence, and by counsels sage,
He watches o'er his flock in ev'ry stage.
What wretch obscure has he refused his aid?
God only knows the happy he has made.

In sad receptacles of human woe *,
Where want, affliction, and disease o'erflow,
He comes; the horror of each ill is fled,
Of want the chill distress, of death the dread—
Who want prevents, of crimes oft turns the stream,
The poor his bounty bless, the rich his worth esteem.'

In describing the pride, importance, and pedantry of the village school-master, some pleasantry occurs: but it is in a different key from the rest of the poem. In the rural descriptions contained in this first canto, the author owns that he has imitated Pope's Windsor Forest, Denham's Cooper's Hill, *La Chasse* of *St. Lambert*, the Seasons of Thomson, and Goldsmith's Deserted Village; yet he has frequently examined nature himself, and has coloured objects with his own pencil.

Canto II.—It is not common Farming which the poet celebrates in this Canto, but the wonderful expedients in cultivation which are derived from physiological inquiries, mechanical powers, meditation, and experiment.

'My muse confutes not, nor pretends to evince,
The vulgar modes of culture known long since;
Her song on wonders, not on toils, shall dwell,
And art's most noble works her numbers swell.
'Tis not the rustic goddess of the plains,
Of antient habits partial to the chains,
But 'tis the Enchantress who with magic wand
Has new resources ever at command;
To meliorate the soil, augment the feed
Of native cattle, and improve the breed;
Mountains to fertilize, to pierce the rocks,
Unite the waves, and ope all nature's locks;
O'er climates triumph, harsh, severe, and rude;
Of seasons, time, and place, mock the vicissitude.'

The transplantation of animals and vegetables comes next under consideration;

'Twas long 'ere man divin'd this truth so plain:
Each tree its country has, each soil its grain;
Or that by culture he could mend the sod,
The arenacious cool, and warm the clod.'

Though the author acknowleges the superiority of the English in agriculture, he censures the *Anglomania* which had possessed his countrymen before the American war; and indeed it merited censure, if it only consisted in adopting our whiskies, Jockies, political clubs, and punch, of which we are ourselves not very vain! It is true that the French did carry servile imitation so far as to burn bricks in the neighbourhood of Paris, close to a quarry of excellent white stone, in order to build houses *à l'Anglaises.*—The poet's own losses by the revolution are then pathetically described: he having no shade left, but that of Pindus.

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* Work-houses and Hospitals.

The Abbé now begins to detail the *wonders* of rural philosophy: carrying earth to the summit of the highest mountains in the southern parts of Europe, and planting vines; blowing up rocks, and making the shivered fragments, when pulverized, produce fruits; fertilizing exhausted volcanos, barren sands, the slime of the sea-shore, and the banks of rivers. He invokes Labour and Ingenuity,

> 'Which by the aid of fire, and winds, and waves,
> Make brass and iron ductile, willing slaves;'

and he then describes the wonders of the mountains,

> 'When Alps to Alps, and rocks to rocks are join'd,
> When roars the thunder, and when howls the wind.'—

We dare not, however, follow the bard any farther in these sublime but perilous excursions.—The famous canal of Languedoc is finely described; in cutting which, all obstructions

> 'Of mountains, woods, and waves, are put to flight,
> Two seas uniting, which the world unite.'

Perhaps the author dwells too long on the unpoetical subjects of draining and ditching; and his Episode of *Egeria* and *Dolon*, we think, is far from happy: it appears to us laboured and uninteresting, and the scene is badly laid.

Canto III.—There seems to be more force in the opening of this canto than elsewhere; and indeed this whole section of the work abounds with great beauties of versification and sentiment, as well as manifestations of much reading, observation, and physiological knowlege. The notes occupy more than 50 pages, compiled from Buffon, and other writers on the theory of the earth, and on natural history.—We cannot refrain from extracting a few of the author's sentiments and reflections, which serve as frames to his great pictures.

Speaking of the beauties and deformities of nature being overlooked and ill understood, he says,

> 'The sage alone, by certain indications seen,
> Knows how of fields to taste the joys serene;
> Nature exists but for inquirers wise,
> Whom arts assist with Argus' hundred eyes.—
> The root, the brier, and the uncultur'd moss,
> The frightful image of decay and dross,
> The good, the bad, the scourge, the eye selects;
> The mind interprets causes and effects.'

On the immensity of the sea, the world of waters, on subterraneous plants, and on the circulation of fluids through the globe, we meet with some admirable lines. In speaking of the ocean, he remarks:

> ' *Que de fleuves obscures y dérobent leur source!*
> *Que de fleuves fameux y terminent leur course!*'

> ' What unknown rivers here conceal their source!
> What floods renown'd here terminate their course!'

This idea reminds us of a beautiful couplet on the same subject in Denham's Cooper's Hill;

> " As rivers lost in seas, some secret vein
> Thence reconveys, there to be lost again."

Of the gradual changes in the globe, arising from earthquakes, deluges, and alternate encroachments on each other, the author says:

> ' In change eternal earth and sea are hurl'd,
> Disputing slow the empire of the world.'

In describing mountains supposed to be coeval with the creation, and weather-beaten rocks, the poetical imagery is somewhat grotesque:

> ' Sometimes with visage rude, disdaining grace,
> Of Chaos old preserving still the trace,—
> Here flow'ry valleys, fertile, fresh, and fair,
> There naked rocks, the world's old bones, quite bare.'

Concerning insects furnished with all

> ' Those springs and organs which surpass our sense,
> Perplex our art and proud intelligence,'

we find an ingenious and fanciful note, with which we shall present our readers:

> ' It seems (says the author) as if every species of insect were destined to follow some particular profession, and were furnished with the necessary implements. There are some, it may be said, for every art and calling: their first labours are always perfect; and their industry seems as varied as the diversity of instruments appropriated to the labour peculiar to them. We see architects among them, who form the plan of an edifice capable of containing many hundred inhabitants; the apartments of which are so well distributed, that not a corner is lost; and each individual is there lodged separately, in a sufficient space.'

The author is very eloquent and poetical when describing the instinctive ingenuity of insects, as well as animals; and among the latter, his favourite Dog is immortalized by an elegiac eulogy, with which he concludes the IIId Canto.

Canto IV.—The opening of this Canto is beautifully descriptive, and would be new, if the author had not been anticipated by himself and other panegyrists of nature: but he is aware of the want of novelty in the ideas, however elegantly dressed, and foretells what the critics will say:

> 'But far from hence the stale insipid strains,
> Repeating what each pastoral contains;
> Long has description tame and obsolete,
> Of Flora's realms exhausted every sweet.
> For ever must we hear the bleating sheep?
> For ever to the streamlet's murmur sleep?
> Must Zephyr still to kiss the rose be prone,
> And play with tender buds long since full blown?
> Must echo yet repeat each fond complaint?
> Echo, for want of sleep, quite sick and faint!
> In praising nature is there nothing new?
> Have all her countless charms been brought to view?
> 'Horace, long since, has sung in verse divine,
> The poplar spruce and pale, th' aspiring pine,
> Together twining in a friendly bow'r,
> To shelter jovial souls in social hour.—
> In *his* verse, nature ever young appears,
> In *yours*, just born, she seems advanced in years.'

This fourth Canto may indeed be called an *Art of Poetry*; in which the writer points out what has been already done, even to satiety, in the way of description, and what still remains. His address to Nature is so beautiful, that we cannot help stopping a while to admire it, and attempting to give our readers a specimen of it, though in a homely English garb. After having described a fine country in a fine day, he delineates the sublime horrors of the *Glacieres*:

> 'O Nature! goddess smiling and sublime,
> How varied is thy face by place and time!
> A glance at thee the soul can chill or cheer,
> The sweetest transports raise, or holy fear.
> Now in our valleys, youthful, fresh, and fair,
> Thou mov'st with flowing robe and graceful air;
> Sweeping each shrub and dew-bespangled green,
> Full charg'd with fruits and flow'rs, thy hands are seen;
> Thy smile the heav'ns disclose, and gild the day,
> Thy breath gives Zephyr all the sweets of May;
> The woods and waters sing, exult, rejoice,
> And join in concert with thy dulcet voice!
> But then in desarts, goddess full of dread!
> O'er icy pillars now thy throne is spred;
> The front to intermingling pines consign'd,
> Deform'd and tortur'd by each furious wind;
> While 'gainst its sides the foaming torrents dash,
> And lightnings from thy eyes each moment flash;
> Bolts by thy voice from side to side are hurl'd,
> And bursts volcanic terrify the world!'—

Having extended his descriptions to the characteristics of different climates and countries, he then says:

> ' But let us not for ever paint, describe;
> The pen to interest must the pow'r imbibe;
> Spectators in our pictures must appear,
> And actors gay our beauteous scenes endear.—
> Eden unpeopled is a barren clod,
> A Fane in desert left without a God.——
> Cover the fertile hills at vintage time
> With maidens active, fresh, and in their prime;
> In flow'ry valleys let young swains be found,
> And blest abundance smile on all around.
> Let baths be peopled with a higher race
> Of female beauties, who with modest grace
> To waves discreet scarce dare, with chaste alarms,
> Confide the treasure of their secret charms.
> Trembling with fears extreme they cannot hush,
> Dread their own eyes, nor look without a blush;
> While follow'd in the crystal stream, some Faun,
> Perhaps, the leafy curtain may have drawn.'

We make no apology to those who are able to peruse the original, for such frequent attempts at translation in favour of our mere English readers; who may wish to be in some degree made acquainted with the sources of the Abbé De Lille's high poetic reputation: but we must solicit, on the plea of haste (unavoidable in a periodical work), that indulgence towards our efforts which they undoubtedly require.

We must not, however, withhold one brief specimen of the beauty of the original versification, for the perusal of that numerous class who are able to enjoy it; and we shall select a part of that passage in which the poet acknowleges that, during the *winter* season, "populous cities please him then," yet still maintains the beauties and attractions of the country in that period:

> ' *L'hiver, je l'avoûrai, je suis l'ami des villes :*
> *Là des charmes ravis aux campagnes fertiles,*
> *Grâce au pinceau flatteur, aux sons harmonieux,*
> *L'image frappe encor mon oreille & mes yeux,*
> *Et j'aime à comparer, dans ce portrait fidèle,*
> *Le peintre à la nature & l'image au modèle.*
> *Si pourtant dans les champs l'hiver retient mes pas,*
> *L'hiver a ses beautés. Que j'aime et des frimats*
> *L'éclatante blancheur, et la glace brillante,*
> *En lustres azurés à ces roches pendante!*
> *Et quel plaisir encor, lorsqu' échappé dans l'air,*
> *Un rayon du printemps vient embellir l'hiver,*
> *Et, tel qu'un doux souris qui naît parmi des larmes,*
> *A la campagne en deuil rend un moment ses charmes!*

Qu'u

Qu'on goûte avec transport cette faveur des cieux!
Quel beau jour peut valoir ce rayon précieux,
Qui, du moins un moment, console la nature!
Et si mon œil rencontre un reste de verdure
Dans les champs dépouillés, combien j'aime à le voir!
Aux plus doux souvenirs il mêle un doux espoir,
Et je jouis, malgré la froidure cruelle,
Des beaux jours qu'il promet, des beaux jours qu'il rappelle.'

After having indicated to descriptive poets what is to be seen in Europe that is worthy of their attention, from the summit of the highest mountain to the lowest abyss, the author leads them to South America;—to the immense rivers of Oroonoko and the Amazons, 'proud offsprings of the mountains, and rivals of the sea,' which water half the globe; sometimes flowing in silent tranquillity, then deafening nature with the roar of cataracts. Having pointed out the grand, imposing, and sublime features of nature, 'compared with which the Appenines are but hillocks, the Danube a rill, and the forests of Europe but bushes,' he comes to free-born animals, sheep without a shepherd, cattle without herdsmen, and to harvests without a plough. He then conducts his *élèves* to the deserts of Africa, 'where no men abide,' but which are peopled by lions, tigers, serpents, and hyænas; and laſtly to the utmost limits of the earth, bound in eternal frost, but where the *Aurora borealis* elicits the most vivid radiance of brilliant colours from gigantic prisms. Thus having viewed the extremes of nature, the author brings back his followers to climes more mild and habitable, to temperate skies, green fields, woods, shrubs, rivers, rills, and nightingales: ending his beautiful performance with an éloge on his great master, Virgil, the model of all didactic poets.

To conclude. This poem does not indeed contain any alluring nor any terrible *story:* but it comprehends poetry of the most interesting kind. The author's descriptions of volcanos, lavas, basaltes, coal-mines, springs, the formation of mountains, and domestic animals, (characterising their virtues, vices, passions, and instinctive morality; and reminding us of the honour done to them by the muses of Homer, Lucretius, and Virgil;) are deserving of high praise. Even vegetation, or whatever has life, belongs to poetry, and may be personified. His visit to the place of his nativity, his reminiscences of infantine and adolescent happiness, and his description of the luxury and misery of the capital, are short, and happily expressed. Infancy and old age are perhaps equally fond of the country: since there the first enjoys more liberty, and the latter more tranquillity. It is in the middle period of his existence, when curious, restless, active, and full of health, vigour, and ambition, that man prefers the noise and rivalry of cities to the peaceable cultivation of *his fields*, to the study of nature, to domestic comfort, and to such social enjoyments as his situation affords.

We perceive that the great poetical merit of this work has led us insensibly to dwell more on its beauties than its defects, for that defects may be found we are not ignorant: but, as all the critics in Europe, particularly those of France, have been and still are employed in seeking for and examining spots in this sun, we shall resign to them the gratification of proving that the magnifying power of their reflectors is superior to our's in these cynical observations. We must, however, observe, in justice to those foreign critics whose remarks we have yet seen, that, with whatever severity they arraign the want of plan, of episodes, of arrangement, and of originality, they unanimously allow the poetry in general to be exquisite.

The notes, which occupy more than half of the volume, will be curious and instructive to young students in natural history.

ART. IV. *Voyage de Dimo et Nicolo Stephanopoli*, &c. *i. e. Travels of* DIMO *and* NICOLO STEPHANOPOLI in Greece, during the Years 1797 and 1798, in consequence of two Missions; one by order of the French Government, and the other by that of the General in Chief *Bonaparte*, drawn up from their Materials by a Professor of the Prytaneum. With Plates of Drawings, Plans, and Views taken on the Spot. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 300 each. Paris. 1799.

THE publication of travels in Greece, by Greeks, might naturally lead us to hope for an acquisition to letters, and a treat for curiosity. A late British labourer[*] had entered the same field, and had reaped diligently: but, in the midst of his toils, fate cut the slender thread of his existence, and deprived the world of the valuable fruits of his exertions. She gave his ashes to his favorite Attica, leaving to us nothing but regret;—that regret which must ever flow from the recollection of his rare qualities, of the industry which would have left no promising track unbeaten, of the judgment which was able to select and appreciate, and of the bosom which could foster neither fantastic prepossessions nor intentional deceit! Such were the qualifications of a traveller whose researches would have benefited the age, and added to the lustre of British learning.

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[*] Mr. John Tweddell, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge: of whose juvenile proficiency in classical literature, some specimens appeared in our xiith vol. N. S. p. 327, &c. We then with pleasure hailed the dawn of his literary career, and it is with real regret that we now record its early termination.

These reflections suggested themselves on looking at the title of the work before us; and we formed hopes that it might, in part, retrieve the loss which we had sustained: but we were soon undeceived. We found that the present travellers were political missionaries, professed propagandists, more amateurs of revolutions than of antiquities, and fonder of subverting governments than of exploring antient monuments. In such hands, a voyage into Greece, like every thing else, is wholly political: but the information of this sort, contained in these volumes, might be curious and important, if we could strip it of its disguise, repress the distortions, and reduce the exaggerations. Without the power of doing all this completely, we must read with caution and report with doubt.

These travellers are natives of Corsica, descended from the Greeks who settled in that island in the course of the last century; and who, it seems, in their intercourse with each other, still make use of the language of their original country. It was obviously this circumstance which led to the appointment whence these volumes have resulted; the authors of which are uncle and nephew; the former, *Dimo*, acts the political part; and the latter, *Nicolo*, communicates the little information which this work contains relative to antiquities.

From an interesting conversation, which *Dimo* professes to have held with *Bonaparte*, at the head quarters at Milan in July 1797, on the subject of the peace then negociating between France and the Emperor, we shall make the following short extract.

> " Do you, (asked *Dimo*) as it is rumoured, cede Dalmatia to the Emperor?" *Bonaparte.* " Does that astonish you?" *D.*—" Much; excuse my freedom; my alarms are founded on local and political information. In possession of Dalmatia, the Emperor, if he chooses it, will be soon master of Albania and Greece. The Sclavonians of the Mouth of the Cataro and Monte Negro, who can bring to the field thirty-five thousand men, inveterate enemies of Turkey, border on the Dalmatian frontier; these, and the Albanians of the adjoining parts, nearly all of whom are christians, will receive the Emperor with open arms; and, as his army will fortify itself as it advances, what can hinder him from extending his conquests to Constantinople?" *B.*—(somewhat moved,) " The Emperor will not pass these limits."

The maps were then examined; and *Dimo* presumed, from *Bonaparte*'s silence, that he yielded to his opinion. Did that General make a cession, of the consequences of which he was ignorant? Does this account for the anxiety of the Emperor Paul to have the republic of Venice re-instated? Does it assign a principal cause of the variance between the two imperial courts?

Curious instances of fanatical craft, in Italy, in Belgium, and in La Vendée, with remarks on the oppressions and pernicious effects of the papal civil administration, (the design of all which is very obvious,) follow the account of the above conversation.

The shafts of the travellers are next directed against the late government of Venice, which their hero had just subverted. According to them, the Venetian proveditori of the Greek islands were inferior in no species of oppression to the pachas of the opposite coast. The governor of Cephalonia being always a poor knight, sent thither to retrieve his fortune, he offered every thing to sale, even the absolution of assassins. In a law suit, the rich man was generally sure of succeeding: but, if it happened otherwise, he appealed to the senate of Venice; where he either gained his suit, or was able to protract it to an endless length. In Zante, two thousand assassinations are said to have been committed in three years, and not one assassin had suffered.

After sundry perils, the travellers arrived at Maina. Here they found that the person to whom they had been directed as the Bey had been displaced, and that his successor was in the Ottoman interest; they therefore sought the residence of the ex-Bey, where they met with a cordial reception.—They do not define the territory of Maina, but seem to confound it with the whole of Laconia; though *D'Anville*, speaking of it, says: "*Elle est habitée par un peuple particulier, qui tire son nom de Maïnoti d'un chateau nommé Maïna, situé sur le penchant qui regarde le couchant; mais dont il ne convient point d'étendre l nom, comme dans les cartes, à toute la Laconie.*"

The soil of Maina is the least fertile in the Morea. Pure air, health, internal harmony and liberty, and labour, are the chief possessions of the Maïnotes; who are nevertheless among the richest because among the least ambitious nations. They are not the barbarous piratical people which they have been often supposed to be, but obliging, respectable, and honest; worthy descendants of the antient Spartans. Their bravery and the fastnesses in their hills, preserved their independence till within the last twenty years; when, by treachery on the part of the Turks, they were obliged nominally to surrender it. They agreed to pay a small tribute to the Porte; and to chuse from among themselves a Bey, and fifteen Captains, who are subordinate to him, and who preside over the fifteen districts into which the country is divided. Previously to this nominal subjection to the Porte, this people had customs and usages to which they conformed, but absolutely no civil government nor magistracy. They can send into the field 15,000 men capable of bearing arms.

The failure of the Russian attempt on the Morea is here ascribed, not as hitherto it has been to the cowardice of the Greeks, but to the treachery of Count *Orlof.* It is said that he never wished to achieve this conquest, but that his invasion of the Morea was a feint to divert the Turk from sending the whole of his forces towards the Black Sea. The sacrifice of the miserable Greeks to this policy he did not regard; and many traits of horrible and wanton treachery on his part, towards this unhappy people, are here related.

From a laboured account of the oppressions of the Ottoman government, and of the sufferings of its Greek subjects, stated by these travellers to have come from the mouth of a Mainote, we shall make the following extracts:

'If a Greek appears in a rich habit, the lowest Turk will take out his knife and cut it in pieces. Throughout Romelia, a Greek male child is no sooner born, than the first Turk who hears of it sends his handkerchief to the father, and from that moment the child is his slave; if the father refuses the handkerchief, the Turk soon finds out a method of ruining both father and child.

'A Turk, however low, considers every Greek whom he meets as being at his command, and orders him as he pleases. A Greek islander was lately measuring out corn from his boat; a Turk on the pier ordered him to fetch fire to light his pipe; the Greek stopped to fill his sack, which wanted very little of being full; and the Turk, because he did not obey him instantly, shot him dead. A late Sultan, having made a law that no christians should have any red in their clothing, walked the streets of Constantinople in disguise, accompanied by four attendants, in order to hunt out offenders; and his followers struck off the heads of all persons who were found in the least to transgress his order. A shoemaker's lad sat on his stall, working and singing, with a red cap on his head; the Sultan no sooner saw it, than immediately the head and cap were whirled off together. Ali Bey kidnapped eleven Greeks from Tripolezza, and had them impaled, to avenge himself of an insult which he had received from the Pacha of that district.'—

'*Stravachi*, a Greek, while a sort of intendant to the Beys of Wallachia and Transylvania, accumulated a large fortune. Repeated vexations, which his wealth had brought on him, induced him to present himself before the Grand Seignior, whom he thus addressed:—"Please your Highness, I am worth twelve millions of piastres; I "have no child; thou shalt be my heir; guarantee my fortune to "me for my life." The Sultan, pleased with the offer, laid his hand on the other's shoulder, and said, "enjoy thy fortune in safety." For some years he was unmolested: but, at last, they thought that

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he lived too long; they accused him to the Sultan of intending to escape, with his fortune, to Russia; they obtained a decree of death against him; and he was instantly taken and hung.

‘ At Naples, in Romania, they have this law, which is most religiously observed; that whoever sees a Greek ill-treated, struck, and overpowered, and gives him succour, is unworthy the name of Mussulman, and is cursed of the prophet. So far, indeed, are they from lending assistance, that when they see a mangled victim fall and expire, they cry out *bravo! bravo!*

‘ The Greeks take the greatest pains to conceal their daughters, and to remove them to the mountains; and, horrible to add, their sons also, if comely and attractive. At times, the inhabitants of Constantinople abstain from fish, from the apprehension that they feed upon human flesh, as the coast from the capital to the Dardanelles is covered with dead bodies.’

If this picture, of which we have copied only parts, be accurately drawn, (and it is but too consistent with all other representations,) shall we wonder that the present missionary reports that the Greeks of Albania, Romelia, the Morea, and Livadia, sighed with impatience for the arrival of *Bonaparte?* The Greeks, he says, are ready for freedom, and the sentiments of their ancestors have revived in their bosoms. Romelia, we are told, contains 300,000 Greeks capable of bearing arms, who would join any christian power that would invade the country: but (it is in course added) *they would give the preference to the French, and particularly to Bonaparte and the army of Italy.*—For the sake of humanity and letters, we wish that their emancipation was effected, but that any other power than France should perform the work of deliverance. Woe be to England, and to Europe, if France be ever strong enough to accomplish the undertaking! We mean not to say that the achievement is in itself difficult; for, if other governments would have lain still, or had not dared to stir, it possibly might have been effected as easily as this missionary has stated. According to him, 12,000 French commanded by *Bonaparte*, assisted by the Greeks who would have joined them, and two or three frigates in the gulph of Lepanto, to cut off the passage of the Albanian Turks; together with six sail of the line in the bay of Naples of Romania, to hinder the arrival of reinforcements from other parts of the Turkish empire; would have formed all the force that was necessary in 1797 to recover Greece from the Turks.

To turn now from political speculations to particulars of a more literary nature. We are told by these travellers that the isle of Cerigo, the antient Cytherea, was peculiarly adapted by its air, climate, and other physical qualities, for the worship to which it was formerly dedicated. On their arrival in it, they met with a self-taught universal scholar, who possessed cessed a valuable antient MS. of Plato; and interesting details of the ruins of Scandia, the result of his own researches. They requested to obtain the one and to copy the other, but experienced an absolute refusal.

On the summit of the hill Aplunori, we are told, are the ruins of a temple of Venus Aphrodite; the scite being fenced in by four square plantations, towards the four cardinal points. The travellers there found several inscriptions; an exquisite engraving, on marble, of Venus setting a crown on the heads of two young lovers; and trees with characters cut in them, now almost obliterated: but, in one instance, by the aid of a magnifier, they decyphered the words CΥΜΙΌΝ ΑΓΑΛΛΙΑCΕΟC, *symbol of rejoicing*. The scite of the temple commands a most enchanting prospect; over-looking the whole of the island, the Morea, and the Archipelago, as far as the eye can reach. It is also said that here is a family, in which the eldest male succeeds to the possessions, on the conditions of living single, guarding the sacred summit, and keeping up the plantations. This keeper scarcely ever quits the spot, and allows no one to visit it; the present travellers being indulged only because they belonged to the *great nation*: but, even though they possessed this important privilege, the hermit, on introducing them, is said to have addressed supplications to the manes of his ancestors, to deprecate their displeasure.

The authors visited the ruins of Gythium, the famed Spartan sea-port; one half of which is covered by the sea, but visible under its waves, and the other is on dry land *. They state its circumference to be about twelve miles.—Its harbour must have been completely sheltered, and impregnable both by sea and land.—Among the curiosities, is a sort of amphitheatre cut out of a rock; a very remarkable defile which could not have been formed without incredible labour. Several inscriptions and other curiosities are also mentioned as having been discovered by these visitors. A statue of Liberty, taken out of the ruins of the temple of Victory, in the possession of the ex-Bey of Maina, they begged as a present for *Bonaparte*; it was given to them, and is now in his cabinet. The goddess holds a long pike in her right hand, and in her left a code mounted with a laurel crown. The device is, νίκη, ἢ θάνατος.—!! Other antique specimens are described by these travellers: but we shall hesitate to give implicit credit to their accounts, until they are confirmed by fresh testimony: at present, we set little value on them, except as far as they may furnish hints for future inquiries.

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* The D. *de Choiseul Gouffier* only saw these ruins as he coasted along, and never set foot on the scite of them.

On the whole, as we before said, though these desultory volumes contain much curious information, it must be received with considerable allowances; and the spirit which they manifest is of a nature that must excite the strongest disapprobation.

ART. V. *Voyage de la Propontide et du Pont-Euxin*, &c. *i. e.* Voyage to the Propontis and the Euxine, with a general Chart of both these Seas; a topographical Description of their Coasts; an Account of the Manners, Customs, and Commerce of their Inhabitants; a particular Map of the Plain of Brussa in Bithynia, that of the Thracian Bosphorus, and that of Constantinople; and a Description of the antient Monuments and modern Edifices of that Capital. By J. B. LE CHEVALIER, Member of the Free Society of Sciences and Arts at Paris; of the Academies of Edinburgh, Göttingen, Cassel, and Madrid. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1800, Imported by De Boffe, London.

THE author of this work is already well known by his publication on the Troade, or the plain of Troy, and for his profound acquaintance with the literature of the antients. He now presents the public with a description of a country on which, as he justly observes, nature has been peculiarly lavish of her bounties: though the inhabitants of it, while they exhibit the features of a noble character, have not hitherto been able to acquire the arts of political œconomy; and, probably, from the nature of their government, will long be retarded in their progress towards the attainment of that science, which is so necessary to the prosperity of nations.

'If the Propontis and the Euxine,' says M. LE CHEVALIER, 'were in the possession of a people sufficiently enlightened to understand the advantages of so valuable a property, and industrious enough to reap the benefit of them, Constantinople might become the emporium both of Europe and of Asia. Her suburbs, while they extended southwards to the extremities of the Propontis, would be bounded by the Euxine on the north; as will appear from an inspection of the map, and observing the immense number of towns, following in almost an uninterrupted succession from the origin of the Bosphorus to the Ægean sea; towns at present, indeed, nearly deserted, their opulence having vanished with their industry: but the name of every one of which calls to our minds some momentous recollection, and has deserved and obtained a distinguished place in the records of history.'

As a particular description of all these places would, however, have swelled this performance to an enormous size, the author principally confines himself to Constantinople; annexing an account of the Propontis and the Euxine, to enable his readers to judge of the advantages of that capital over all the cities of the world. In the attainment of his pursuit, he had many difficulties to encounter; and a great many more would have occurred, but for the interest, the influence, and the advice of M. *de Choiseul Gouffier*, at that time ambassador of France at the Ottoman Porte. This is the only circumstance stated, by which we discover the period when this excursion was performed.

The voyage of the Propontis and the Euxine is divided into five parts: the first containing charts and descriptions of the Propontis, of the plain of Brussa in Bithynia, and what the author calls a picture of the Hellespont; the second, a chart of the Thracian Bosphorus, with topographical particulars of its shores; the third, the antiquities of Constantinople; the fourth, a map of that capital and the description of its modern structures, interspersed with historical quotations from Gibbon, *Cantemir, Delacroix*, and other celebrated writers. The geographical remarks and observations, composing the fifth part, are chiefly from the pen of Col. *Lafitte*, lately deceased.

We shall present our readers with a few extracts from this elaborate and entertaining work.

'I traversed at several times (says the author) and in various directions, the shores of the Propontis and the canals by which it communicates with the two adjacent seas: but, for the sake of method and precision, I shall here invert the order of my observations. It is of little consequence what route the traveller has taken, if the objects which he describes are faithfully exhibited.

'On the northern shore of the Propontis, three leagues from the mouth of the Bosphorus, I found a lake about a league in diameter, called by the Turks Kutchuk-Tchekmedge (the little bridge). In the generality of maps, a very imperfect idea is given, both of this lake and of that named Boiuk Tchekmedge (the great bridge), lying three leagues farther, and of twice the diameter of the former. These two lakes have unquestionably been gulphs of the Propontis; and the marshes, which now separate their mouth from the sea, have been gradually accumulated by the rivers falling into them. This hypothesis is farther confirmed by the observation which I made at Cizicum, and at the lake of Nicea, that the waters of the Propontis retreat by insensible degrees; and that the bed of that sea will hereafter be filled up, as well as those of the Euxine * and the Baltic.

'* Strabo, lib. i.'

‘ The mouth of Boiuk Tchekmedge is crossed by three magnificent bridges, which Meletius, the geographer, affirms to have been constructed by Solyman[*].

‘ On entering the town of Selivri, I had an opportunity of being present at a sight which I had in vain endeavoured to procure during the fifteen months which I spent in Constantinople. A Dervise was introduced into a company of Turks and Greeks among whom I happened to be. His figure, from leanness and melancholy, was truly hideous. His first action was that of taking off his clothes, laying his kalpac[†] on the ground, after having brought it to his forehead; then, taking a scourge, consisting of little iron chains, which he wore at his girdle, he threw it repeatedly up in the air, catching it in his hand with dexterity similar to that of our buffoons at a country fair. At the instant when all were expecting to see him exercise his scourge in the flagellation of his own skin, he balanced himself with his bare belly across the edge of a sabre, held at the extremities by two other Dervises; and remained in that terrifying posture at least a minute: after which he applied a red hot iron to his tongue, and pierced his arms, his eye-lids, and his cheeks, with sharp-pointed instruments; so that the blood trickled down his beard. Incited by the applause of the spectators, and encouraging himself to trials each successively more cruel than the other, it is impossible to say when he would have stopped, had not the company, at length satisfied or rather shocked at his extravagances, intreated him to desist.

‘ At some distance inland from Selivri, I traced the ruins of that long wall, Macron-Teichos, which was raised by the inhabitants of Constantinople for the defence of their city against the irruption of the barbarians; and which extended from Selymbria on the Propontis, to Philea on the Euxine; that is, being about 420 stadia in length.

‘ The city of Heraclia, which the Turks corruptly call Reklia, is situated, like Selivri, on the borders of the Propontis. This city, formerly the most considerable of Thrace, was founded in the year of Rome 153; and in it are still seen the remains of an amphitheatre, and of the magnificent palace built by Vespasian.

‘ On my visit to the port of Rodosto, I was witness to a scene which may serve to give a just idea of the despotism of a conquering over a vanquished people.—Two small boats were sailing towards the shore, at a nearly equal distance from it, and seeming to contend which should reach it first. One was manned by Turks and the other by Greeks. The bowsprit of the former having got foul of the rigging of the other, a Greek sailor ran forwards to disengage it; when the master of the Turkish boat got up in a rage, and, laying hold of an oar, knocked down the Greek with it; who suffered himself to be killed, without offering the least resistance[‡].

‘ I have gone both by sea and land from Rodosto to the mouth of the Hellespont. Keeping in with the coast by sea, I surveyed with pleasure the towns of Ganos, of Miriophito, of Peristasis, and Palio

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[*] ‘Meletiou Geographia, pag. 422.’

[†] ‘Or cap.’

[‡] See pp. 485, 486.

Patino. The journey by land is dangerous, and presents no one object deserving of particular notice; excepting Hexamilia, of which I shall speak in the next chapter.'

The author then proceeds to give an account of his voyage from the Sigæan promontory to the isthmus of Hexamilia; in which we have not time to accompany him, though desirous of being entertained and improved by his ingenious observations.

We should gladly transcribe for our readers the concluding chapter, on the means of defending Constantinople in case of an invasion by sea, (which also contains the best methods of attack,) as being highly interesting, especially at this time; but, as it is too long for our limits, we must content ourselves with extracting the author's general observations respecting the Euxine; with which we shall conclude this article.

'The Euxine possesses the advantage of having not one rock, and of affording several harbours, roadsteads, or anchorages, on all its coasts; yet every year witnesses frequent shipwrecks, occasioned by the ignorance and inexperience of the Turkish mariners, who sail without charts, without rule, and almost as chance directs. No observations are to be expected from them, on the actual position of places, on the currents, nor even on the coasts and their soundings. They have never given particulars of that nature; they scarcely ever improve by practice; and their vessels are also very ill-constructed, and badly provided.

'The five principal rivers which pour their waters into the Euxine must necessarily produce currents, the force and direction of which it would be highly advantageous to know. These rivers convey into it a prodigious quantity of sand; which, being diffused in all the creeks and bites of the shores that are most distant from their mouths, is drifted by the winds so as sometimes to form a sort of downs. It has already been remarked that the coast of the Euxine is generally steep, and formed of layers of rock frequently inclined, and intermixed with strata of clay or gravel, covered at top by a good black mould, sometimes stoney, but extremely well adapted to cultivation. No sand is found any where but at the mouths of the rivers; and the shores even of the Dniepr and of the Dniestr, on the margin of the sea, are composed of strong land which resists the pick-axe: whence it may be inferred that the sands which they convey come from a greater distance, and that those which are lodged in the creeks are carried thither by the force of the currents. It has likewise been observed that the steep shores being incessantly worn by the violence of the waves, the winds, and the currents, the figure of the coast is changed; which also produces an alteration in the sand-banks. The destruction of a cape is sometimes sufficient to choak up a creek, which before afforded a safe anchorage for ships.

'The commerce of the Euxine is capable of being rendered more beneficial both to Turkey and to European nations, if it were carried on by more able mariners and more intelligent merchants: but the slow-ness of the navigation causes the expence of freight to be excessive; and the unskilfulness of the merchants, who are also destitute of spacious warehouses for their goods, still farther enhances the price by retarding the departure of the vessels. It is partly for this reason that the Turks prefer small craft to larger ships for coasting this sea; loading them indifferently with all goods which offer, without any regard to their stowage. No public work is executed for the benefit of commerce; and the bad condition of the roads contiguous to the several maritime towns, with the want of commodious quays or wharfs for shipping or unshipping the cargoes, always occasion additional expences and prejudicial delays.

'The principal exports from this country are, grain (usually restricted to Constantinople), wool, timber, tar, hemp, wax, honey, leather, cotton, and copper. The articles which might be carried thither are cloths, coffee, sugar, and gold and silver lace: but for this purpose, factories should be established at all the sea-ports, protected by the Turkish government, to secure them from the plunder of the pashas and other subaltern authorities.'

M. LE CHEVALIER himself visited most of the places which he describes; and we see no reason for doubting either the veracity of his accounts, or the accuracy of his observations.

ART. VI. *Essai sur l'état actuel,* &c. *i. e.* An Essay on the present State of the Administration of the Finances, and of the national Riches, of Great Britain. By FREDERIC GENTZ. 8vo. pp. 247. Hamburg. 1800. Imported by Debrett, London.

THE German journals, we understand, are in the habit of painting in gloomy colours the means and resources of Great Britain. One of them lately asserted that British Bank notes are government securities, and that they are circulated to the amount of one hundred millions. Another reported that the whole of the national property did not exceed four hundred millions in value, while the interest of the public debt amounted to eighteen millions. To obviate mistakes of this sort, and to give foreigners correct and authentic information on the subject, is the professed object of the present tract: the author of which appears to be a complete master of all our late publications and parliamentary speeches relative to finance. Being in full possession of the information which is to be collected from these sources, he states it in the treatise before us with method and perspicuity; rendering it an acceptable present not only to strangers, but even to British subjects themselves.

M. GENTZ divides his work into three parts. In the first, he inquires into the resources of this country; and he makes the whole of our national revenues amount to two hundred millions per annum. Comparing the accounts given by the English and French writers on political economy, he finds, that the territorial revenues of England alone, without including those of Scotland, equal those of France as they were estimated previously to its late convulsions: but we cannot help suspecting that there must be some fallacy in this statement; and that, if the different value of money in the two countries be taken into the account, with the effect of the restraints to which the commerce of the interior of France was subject at the period in question, a different result would be obtained. The subject is important; the fact is capable of being ascertained; and therefore it certainly ought to have due attention paid to it.

In the IId. part of this work, the author treats of national debts in general, and of the British in particular. His account of the rise of the funding system is clear and concise; and the same character belongs to that which he gives of the sinking fund. We are sorry, however, to be here required to observe, that he seems to render the late ingenious and amiable Dr. Price unwilling and scanty justice; while treating of the plans for reducing the national debt, it was not fair (in our judgment) to devote the text wholly to Mr. Pitt, and to confine the learned Doctor to a note. Is it not praise enough for the minister, that he has adopted the Dr.'s plan, has introduced into it those improvements which habits of business were likely to suggest, has followed it up, and has acted on it with perseverance, in the face of difficulties almost insurmountable? This surely is very meritorious. Dr. Price looked for no other reward for his labours, than fame and the gratitude of his country. Why should his right to these possessions be invaded? This sort of injustice is impolitic, and literary men should be the last to manifest it. Had M. Gentz been better informed, he would have known,—or had he been less prejudiced, he would have acknowleged,—that, on subjects of financial calculation, Dr. Price, even by the side of Hume, Smith, &c. was not to be represented as a minor writer.

The concluding part of this essay treats on the Bank of England, and on its connection with government; forming a neat and judicious summary of the information contained in the discussions to which the late stoppage of the Bank gave rise. The author is very anxious that it should be believed that the Bank did not become bankrupt: but he confounds bankruptcy with insolvency; the Bank was as clear of the latter, as it was indubitably chargeable with the former.

We extract the following observations on the subject of circulating coin, as a specimen of the writer's style and of his turn of thinking:

'In every state which has arrived at a certain degree of civilization, its circulating coin forms but an inconsiderable part of the national wealth; and in comparing different states together, we shall always find that the ratio, which this sum bears to the commodities which it represents, is less, in proportion as the general wealth is greater; so that, paradoxical as the proposition may appear, we may safely maintain that, all other things being equal, *the richest state* will possess, proportionably, *the least ready money*. This appears to be principally founded on the three following reasons:

'1. The more the industry of a country flourishes, the more rapid will be the circulation of specie; and therefore the less will be necessary to support that circulation. Ten millions, which, in a given space of time, pass eight times from hand to hand in one country, will answer the same purpose as forty millions in another, which only change hands twice in the same period.

'2. The more activity there is, the more extended will be the sphere; and the more credit there exists generally, the more easy will it be to introduce paper as a substitute for money;—an instrument of circulation far less expensive than that of the metals.

'3. The greater is the progress which a state has made in all the branches of industry, and of public and private economy, the more capable it will be of maintaining an exact equilibrium between the mass of its coin, and the demands of circulation A nation, little versed in the arts of industry and commerce, has often more coin than is necessary, or than it can employ; while the nation which nicely balances its interests will have no more than the demands of circulation enjoin. As a skilful merchant retains in his chest no more money than strict necessity requires, so a nation, all the individuals of which are capable of accurately judging of their wants and means, will maintain the mechanism of circulation with as little expence as possible; and it will consider every superfluous million as an useless wheel in the machine. This fully explains why, of all the countries of Europe, (without excepting Russia and Sweden,) England, in proportion to its wealth, has the least coin in circulation, and what a false test of the real wealth of a country is derived from the sum of its circulating specie.'

Though this work professes to be printed abroad, and to be the production of a foreigner, we think that the strong predilections which it manifests, the nice details into which it enters, and the light shades of opinion which it traces, bespeak it to be of home growth. Be its object and its origin, however, what they may, its claim to the character of being an able production, replete with valuable and authentic information, cannot be disputed; and we consider the author as intitled to the acknowlegements of the country in whose favour he has employed his pen, as well as to the thanks of those foreigners who feel a desire to become acquainted with the strength and resources of Great Britain.

ART. VII. *Des Causes qui ont amené l'Usurpation du Général Bonaparte, &c. i. e.* On the Causes which have led to the Usurpation and will effect the Downfall of General *Bonaparte* By Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS. 8vo. pp. 378. 8s. Boards. De Boffe, &c. London. June, 1800.

FRESH consolation is here offered to Great Britain, in the prophecy of the speedy failure of the French resources, the downfall of the Consulate, and the restoration of the Bourbon line. In the opinion of Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS, these are matters about which it would be folly or ignorance in the extreme to entertain a single doubt. He exhibits France as thrown, by her financial derangements, at the feet of the coalesced powers, and the coalition as giving her peace on condition that she restores royalty.—The victory of Marengo, the successes of *Moreau*, and the congress at Luneville, do not exactly square with these agreeable forebodings: but future commentaries from the prophet's own pen may shew that there is no discordance.

Paul, Francis, and Frederic, are allies of little note compared with one who makes a very conspicuous figure in this elaborate treatise. This friend from whom we may expect all sorts of wonders, this redoubtable auxiliary of the coalition, our readers will have anticipated, is no other than General *Deficit*. What the bands of Austria and the hordes of Russia attempted in vain, *Deficit* will soon effect. As it was this which overturned the late French monarchy, so we are told by the author that *Citizen Deficit* is to act the chief part in restoring it, and to rear up again that which he once destroyed!—Frederic forsook us, Paul broke with us, Francis can no longer act with us; and we greatly fear that *Deficit* will serve us much in the same way, and fall short of the brilliant promises here made to us on his behalf. Suppose *Deficit* to hurl the Chief Consul from his throne, and Louis XVIII. to step in to fill the vacancy: what security has the restored monarch, against experiencing a similar fate! We had always conceived that *Deficit* was the enemy of principalities, powers, and potentates; and that he could prove their best friend is, we imagine, a discovery of this author, worthy to be ranked with his predictions already mentioned.

If Louis XVIII. were restored; if he, instead of *Bonaparte*, now held levies at the Thuilleries; and if the scattered nobles filled the antichambers of the palace, instead of the sons of enterprize who surround the Chief Consul; would these circumstances render the taxes more productive? The King, in the present state of France, would require establishments, civil

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and military, not less expensive than those which exist; and he would have an additional establishment, which does not press on the republican government; namely, the ecclesiastical; which would require some millions sterling for its support. The reasoning, of which so much has been thrown away on this subject, if it proves any thing, goes to shew that France can no longer subsist as a state: but that she will crumble to the ground, and become the property of surrounding powers.

This work is very much occupied by tedious disquisitions on French finance, in which the terrific and the ludicrous are curiously intermingled: but we do not think that our enemies are here fairly treated. The author strings together, and exhibits in one whole, hints, observations, and proposals, collected from all sorts of sources, from official communications, speeches in the councils, pamphlets, newspapers, and placards. Allowing ourselves such liberties, it is no difficult task to work up a picture so as to be more conformable to our fancies and views than to reality. The author's observations on the forced loan, however, merit the attention of every statesman.

The conjuncture, of which *Bonaparte* profited to place himself at the helm of government, is fully and ably discussed. The present constitution, we are told, actually came from one of the Abbé *Sieyes*'s pigeon-holes; and it had been long a favorite plan with him, which he anxiously wished to see realized. We own that we had considered it as too military in its structure, to have been the production of the ingenious Abbé; and we thought that it bore marks of the temper and views of *Bonaparte*.

The first six months of the Chief Consul's administration here pass in review before us; and the account is by no means favorable to the ruling powers. We wish that facts,—alas! too prominent, and too important, did not war against the writer's conclusions!

When party views do not mislead his judgment, Sir FRANCIS D'IVERNOIS appears to great advantage. His disquisition on the several expenditures of a government founded on equality, and of another which rests on property and allows of privileges, contains observations of considerable importance, not elsewhere to be found. Foreigners, and our countrymen, will feel obliged to him for his account of the administrative part of our government; which is worthy of forming an appendix to the admirable chapters of *Montesquieu*.

Art. VIII. *Correspondance de Louis-Philippe-Joseph d'Orléans*, &c. The Correspondence of *Louis-Philippe-Joseph d'Orléans*, with Louis XVI, the Queen, *Montmorin*, *Liancourt*, *Biron*, *La Fayette*, &c. &c. With Details respecting his Exile to Villers-Cotterets, and his Conduct on the 5th and 6th of October, 1789, written by himself: followed by Letters to his Wife, his Children, and those of Madame de Genlis; to which is added an Extract from the Journal of the eldest Son of d'Orléans, daily kept by himself. Published by L. C. R.* 8vo. pp. 282. Paris. 1800. London, De Boffe. Price 6s.

These communications will be less regarded for any intrinsic value which they can boast, than on account of the light which they throw on the French revolution; and even in this respect their pretensions are more humble than they might have been expected to be. They do not, in any degree, clear up the horrible transactions of the 5th and 6th of October, 1789: but they tend, as far as they go, rather to confirm than to weaken the suspicions entertained by many, that these proceedings were excited by the Orleans party with a view to the massacre of the royal family, and the exaltation of their chief to the throne. The letters shew the extreme anxiety of the French ministry, and of *La Fayette*, to remove this prince from Paris, and to prevent his return to that capital. His diplomatic mission to England, the ostensible object of which —namely, that of sounding the dispositions of the British cabinet towards France, and respecting the troubles of the Low Countries,—was a mere pretext, seems to have been arranged solely for this purpose. With regard to the former of those points, the French court knew that it could rely with safety on its ambassador M. *de la Luzerne*; and, with respect to the latter, the idea of erecting the Austrian Netherlands into an independent state, at the head of which the Duke *D'Orléans* was to be placed, was abundantly too chimerical ever to have been seriously contemplated by the ministers of Louis XVI.; though the Duke was weak enough to be highly pleased with it.

In some of these letters, we find the Duke treated on the part of his sovereign with more consideration than is due to a subject; and, in his turn, assuming more than became one. The correspondence between M. *de Montmorin* and M. *D'Orléans* manifests the good sense of the former, and the deficiency of the latter; and the whole of it (in this respect in harmony with all the other transactions of his life) exhibits his

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* The title-page adds that the originals of this work are deposited in the hands of the printer, until the 1st of Brumaire, 9th year.

meddling, mischievous, and unmanageable disposition. Insatiably greedy of distinction, but incapable of either meriting or retaining it, he had no faculties but for mischief, and shewed no ability but in the commission of crimes.

The Duke assures the French minister that he may rely on the pacific dispositions of the court of St. James's, because he (the Duke) had received the most positive and frank assurances on that head from Mr. Pitt and the Duke of Leeds. Of Mr. Pitt, he says, 'it is his custom not to engage hastily in foreign matters, but to wait the event in order to take advantage of it.' At that time, wiser men than the Duke *D'Orléans* might have entertained this sentiment: but very different circumstances have since occurred.

The letters of Madame *D'Orléans* place her in the most amiable light as a wife, a mother, and a christian; though her letter to the Duke respecting his mistress, Madame *de Buffon*, shews that French wives carried their complaisance towards their husbands much farther than it is extended by the respectable matrons of this island.

The enthusiastic glow and ardent temper of youth, apparent in the journal of the Duke *de Chartres* (now Duke *D'Orléans*), are highly creditable to him; and they evince how much we lose on the score of pleasurable sensations, when we exchange the intoxication of our early days for the sobriety of more mature years. His false notions and views belong not in any degree to him, but wholly to those by whom they were infused into him.

As far as the late unfortunate monarch appears in these papers, he supports his usual character for uprightness and strict propriety of conduct. It would seem that, the more the actions and behaviour of this ill-fated Prince are developed, the more cruel and unmerited his lot must be regarded!

Art. IX. *Voyage en Grèce*, &c. *i. e.* Travels in Greece, by Xavier Scrofani, a Sicilian, in 1794 and 1795. Translated from the Italian by *J. F. C. Blanvillain*. With a general Chart of antient and modern Greece, and ten Tables of the Commerce of the Venetian Isles, of the Morea, and of southern Romelia. 8vo. 3 Vols. pp. 160 each. Paris and Strasburgh. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London.

THE pleasure which this work cannot fail to dispense to every admirer of antient Greece,—which designation includes all scholars and lovers of excellence,—disarms criticism, and disposes us rather to apologise for occasional extravagancies, than officiously to point them out, and severely to censure them. Persons of a liberal turn will feel indebted to the writer who rekindles their enthusiasm in favour of Greece; who inspires them with a veneration for its antient inhabitants, similar to that which glows in his own bosom; who induces them to enrich their shelves with the precious reliques of its literature; and who incites them again to consult the matchless models which engaged the attention of their happy puerile days, and which imperceptibly formed their taste, and regulated their sentiments.

Sensibility is doubtless the trait which most distinguishes Signior SCROFANI: but we do not by any means deem him deficient in information. He betrays no want of a competent acquaintance with his subject, but seems master of all that is to be collected relating to it, either from antient topography or modern travels; and he appears sufficiently skilled in the history and mythology which furnish the topics for his animated effusions. Had he referred us to his authorities, indeed, he would have rendered his pages far more valuable.

The reader will observe that we derive our conceptions of this work from a translation, of the fidelity of which we cannot speak, not being possessed of the original: but which certainly claims the merit of being spirited and easy, and which (we think) cannot fail to afford gratification to all who are not fastidious. We see no reason for suspecting the judgment of the translator: who, speaking of the original work, says that these travels prove how far Italian prose is capable of being the vehicle of sentiment; and that the volumes furnish a model of a new kind of style, which their author has created. Born under a burning sun, and finding himself amid the speaking ruins of antient Greece, his imagination transports him to the ages of its glory, and carries with him the fancy of his readers. His letters on Thermopylæ, Athens, Salamis, Olympia, Elis, and Parnassus, express elevation of thought in energetic and animated language; and the whole has also the merit of retracing, in an interesting manner, the most striking facts of Grecian history.

Had the original fallen into our hands, we should have made liberal extracts from it: but our readers will discern our reasons for not translating from the translation of a work, much of the merit of which is stated to arise from its style.

In the third volume, which contains a statistical account of the Morea, and of the Ionian islands, the author descends from the *tight rope* of sentiment and the clouds of Grecian antiquity, to the humble surface of the existing soil; and this object, which amid his flights he seemed wholly to overlook, now engages all his attention. He notes its actual state, surveys the beings who occupy it, the produce which it yields, and the economy which regulates its aspect. If we find him less amusing in his new capacity, his labours are certainly not less instructive and useful. He marks out his course with judgment, moves with a cautious step, examines the scene with a penetrating eye, and his conceptions seem to be founded on careful observations made from the best points of view. As, however, his results do not materially vary from the ideas generally entertained on the subject, we shall refer those who love details to the work itself; whence the editors of elementary statistical books may enrich their compilations.

Many important observations with regard to the present state of Greece, and which strike us as new, occur in these volumes; and none occasioned us more surprise than those which relate to the infidelity which, according to the author, gains considerable ground among both Turks and Greeks. Indeed, there is no part of his relation which we feel so much disposed to call in question: yet he speaks with confidence; and it must be owned that he had sufficient opportunities for gaining information, having resided four years in the country. Still this account ill agrees with the abject state in which he, every where, represents the Turks in general to be; and in one place, in particular, speaking of them, he says, ' I do not know whether, living as they do, they are happy: but this I do know, that, dwelling amid the ruins of antient Greece, and possessing the finest soil in Europe, they are ignorant of those arts of the first importance, with which the Spaniards and Dutch found the inhabitants of Mexico and Peru, and even those of the Cape of Good Hope, previously acquainted.'

Several works of this kind, containing information relative to Greece, and other parts of Turkey in Europe, have of late made their appearance in France *. We leave politicians to divine what this circumstance portends.—That the Chief Consul has long cast a wishful eye towards Greece, and that the invasion of that country is an enterprize which he would gladly encourage, cannot be doubted: but, (as we have already observed †) fervently as we wish for its liberation, we trust that Providence will make use of some other instrument for the purpose than France. Many considerations intimate that Greece will not long remain in the state in which it is at present; and the friendship now forming between powers, which lately were so much at variance, may ultimately have an influence on its destiny. Many, also, are the circumstances which have recently

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* See pages 482—492 of this Appendix.

† See page 486 of this Appendix.

arises

arisen in Europe, that give disquietude to the British well-wisher to its peace and its balance: among these, the present situation of Greece and of the Ottoman power undoubtedly rank; and, though they may not be the most pressing, they are certainly not the least considerable objects of attention.

ART. X. *Dogmatis de resurrectione corporum mortuorum origo,* &c. *i. e.* An historical and philological Inquiry into the Origin of the Doctrine of the Resurrection of the Body, and whether it be asserted in the Book of Job. By J. HALLENBERG. 12mo. pp. 45. Stockholm. 1798.

IN the LXX we find a singular translation, or rather gloss, of the Hebrew words גאלי חי which occur in the passage of Job (chap. xix. ver. 25, 26, 27.), that is the subject of this disquisition before us. They rendered it, *ἀέναός ἐςιν ὁ ἐκλύειν με μέλλων*: but the Vulgate translated it, *Redemptor meus vivit*, and it was followed by all the modern common versions; while Christian interpreters have generally considered the whole passage as declarative of Job's belief of the Resurrection of the body, through the Great Redeemer of the world, who is here foretold. To such an interpretation, many insuperable objections may be made. If the passage be thus understood, it will prove too much; for it will assert the knowlege of the Resurrection of the body to be as complete many ages previously to the Christian Revelation, as it was subsequently to the period when *Life and Immortality* (*αφθαρσιαν*) *were brought to light.* If this passage also be considered as having any reference to the Resurrection, is it not singular that it should not be quoted by our Saviour in his controversy with the Sadducees; and that he should be obliged to cite a passage by which his hearers would understand that the doctrine of a Future State was rather to be inferred from the writings of the Old Testament, than clearly revealed in them? Aware of these difficulties, judicious critics have abandoned the common versions, together with the popular comments, and have translated and explained the words in a manner which is more applicable to the case and probable sentiments of the speaker.

M. HALLENBERG is to be ranked among the latter description of writers; and he proves that no such doctrine as the modern Swedish, German, and we may add English, versions express, existed at the remote period at which the book of Job was composed. So far are the words of Job from declaring the Resurrection of the body, that, according to this writer, they assert the reverse:—*sensum longe alium verba Jobi fundunt.* In proof of this position, he offers a translation which, he professes, closely follows the Hebrew text, (*ad textum Hebræum presse reddita,*) accompanied by critical notes. We shall extract a part of the translation in Latin, deeming it unnecessary to add the Swedish and German versions:

> ‘ 25. *Novi nempe ego vindicem meum vivere, et superstitem esse, qui super pulverem surget.*
>
> ‘ 26. *Post discessum meum percutientur (inimici mei) propter hoc: et ego extra carnem meam (absque vel disjunctus a corpore meo) videbo Deum.*
>
> ‘ 27. *Eum videbo coram me; oculi mei spectabunt eum, cumque me aversatum.*’

In the notes, which are subjoined in justification of this version, M. Hallenberg observes on the latter part of the 25th verse, that it was the custom with the Hebrew poets to repeat in the latter hemistich the same thought which prevailed in the former, with only a variation of words. This is what Dr. Lowth the late Bishop of London, in his Preliminary Discourse to his New Version of Isaiah, terms *Parallelism*; of which there are many instances in the poetic books of Scripture. There can be no doubt that this is the case in the verse before us: but, if the dramatic nature of the book of Job be considered, and regard be had to its *denouement*, it may admit of debate whether this and subsequent verses have not a reference to Job's deliverance from the pressure of his afflictions; particularly from the shocking disease which then corrupted and consumed his flesh; and to his triumph over all his enemies even in this life. It is to be remarked also, that M. Hallenberg's comments attribute to Job, doctrines concerning a future state which it is by no means certain that he possessed. The moral of the book of Job is, that righteousness leads to temporal prosperity. When God speaks from the whirlwind, he does it to declare his approbation of Job; he does not, however, speak of rewards expressive of this approbation to be conferred in a future life: but he distinguished his servant Job by crowning his suffering virtue with greater wealth and worldly happiness than he ever before experienced. The present writer considers Job as having cherished the same opinions concerning the soul which Pythagoras is said to have maintained: but we think that this is a conjecture for which there is very little if any evidence. Because some of the Jews in later times admitted a kind of metempsychosis, and believed that the same soul which animated the body of Adam passed into that of David, and would ultimately exist in that of the Messiah, it by no means follows that this was a sentiment prevalent in the country and era of Job. Without attempting to prove or disprove this position, it is sufficient to remark, that a reference to the rewards and punishments of a future life is inconsistent with the design of the book of Job; which, whether it relates to an individual, or typifies the Jewish people, (as some have supposed,) terminates the history of suffering virtue with a mere sublunary triumph.

The translation of the Swedish Dr. *Tingstadius*, quoted in this tract, will be thought to come nearer the truth:

> ' 25. *Ego novi liberatorem meum vivere, et ille tandem potentiam suam in pulverem exercebit.*
>
> ' 26. *Alia hæc cutis mea erit, quæ jam sauciata est, et cum hoc corpore meo videbo Deum. Mihi clementem Illum videbo.*
>
> ' 27. *Oculi mei Illum spectabunt, nec erit mihi peregrinus.*'

Taking the latter clause of verse 25. " *ille tandem potentiam suam in pulverem exercebit*," to refer not to a belief in the reorganization of a dead body crumbled to dust, but merely to express a confidence that the Divine power would be exerted to raise the speaker from a state of humiliation in the dust, such as that of Job was when he sat on the dunghill; all is natural, agreeing with the character of Job, and declarative of the principle which the whole composition was designed to inculcate.

" I know that my Deliverer liveth, and that his mighty arm will be displayed in raising me from the abject and pitiable state in which you now see me; so that my skin, which is now full of sores and ulcers, shall be healed; and I shall rejoice with a sound body in the goodness of God. His displeasure will pass away, and I shall yet triumph and be happy."

Seeing God is an Hebraism expressive of a state of perfect enjoyment or felicity, and the conclusion of Job's life is represented as such.

As to the origin of the doctrine of the resurrection of the body, it is a point not easy to ascertain. M. HALLENBERG asserts that it did not exist among the Egyptians: (*corpora unquam esse resurrectura haudquaquam Ægyptii credidere*:) but do not the mummies contradict this assertion; and convey an idea that, at the time when this mode of sepulture was in practice, a notion prevailed that at some future period these bodies, so carefully preserved and deposited, would be re-animated? Yet it does not appear from the most antient writings, that the doctrine of a resurrection was originally associated with that of the immortality of the soul. By the Rabbinical Jews, both however were professed; and with them it gave rise to strange whims and fancies. In the New Testament, the doctrine of a resurrection is clearly expressed and established; and it is held forth not as an encouragement to idle conjectures concerning the state of the dead, but as a stimulus to the most active piety and virtue.

Art. XI. *Les Lois de la Nature dévoilées*, &c. *i. e.* The Laws of Nature unveiled; or an Explanation of the simple, constant, and general Laws, established by the Creator to give Motion and Life; from the Instant at which, after the Creation, he kindled the Fire of the Sun, and separated Light from Darkness.—With Plates. By J. M. Huet, Priest, and Doctor in Medicine. 8vo. pp. 500. 10s. 6d. Boards. Sold by Dulau, and De Boffe, London; and also by the Author, No. 7, Lombard street. 1800.

After the discovery of the law of gravitation, Newton is known to have amused himself in some speculations concerning its cause, and to have inquired whether it might not be found in the vibrations of a subtle pervading æther. Where Newton failed, the present author thinks he has succeeded; and by the aid of the modern discoveries in chemistry, he imagines that he has added a supplement to the immortal work of the *Principia.* M. Huet, according to his own representation, is the hierophant destined to unfold the sublime mysteries of nature, which were concealed not only from the profane vulgar, but from the piercing eye of Newton; and if the reader's conviction, astonishment, and pleasure, be equal to the hopes of the author, he deserves the praise lavished on Epicurus;

> " *His tibi me rebus quædam divina voluptas*
> *Percipit, atque horror, quod sic natura tuâ vi*
> *Tam manifesta patet ex omni parte retecta.*"

The principle which M. Huet announces is of unbounded operation: it pervades nature from the limits of the universe: from the *Georgium Sidus*, the Thulé of the solar system, it descends to the earth, and operates about us and within us. It is the same principle which whirls the planets round the sun and turns them on their axes; which secures to the trade winds their constancy; and which regulates the circulation of the blood:—" *agitat molem, et magno se corpore miscet.*"

As combustion operates by means of the decomposition of oxygen gas, the author considers each sun of a system, like our fires, as absorbing, by means of the combustible parts of its inflamed surface, portions of this oxygen gas, which combine with the inflammable air of its surface. By these means, says the author, ' I shall consider each sun as plunged into an air perfectly elastic, the parts of which mutually repel each other; and as opening, by means of its fire, a passage on all the points of its surface, to those parts of the air with which it is in contact: but moreover, I shall consider these same parts surrounding it,—which are pressed on all sides, by the parts which succeed, on all the points of its surface,—as opening *de proche en proche*, to a greater or less distance in proportion to the quantity of oxygen

absorbed

absorbed for the maintenance of the sun's fire, a passage to all the parts which follow them in order.'

The author then proceeds to explain (not in a very perspicuous manner) how currents are formed by the air rushing towards the sun to supply it with fuel: whence are produced centripetal and concentric forces, which cause a great variety of effects. Indeed, in the hands of its author, the principle is of very wonderful efficacy; and timid philosophy fears to be subjected to its power.

In several parts of his work, M. Huet speaks with reverence of Newton, yet he treats the principle of attraction rather slightingly: in fact he *denies its existence*: 'how can gravity (says he) consist with the ascent of balloons, with the operation of a *cleaver* or *sucker* *, with the ascent of vapour, and with the motion of clouds? These phænomena clearly shew that attraction is a matter of pure imagination.'—The ascent of vapour is certainly unlike a body gravitating: but we were astonished to find M. Huet proceeding in his daring heresies, and *proving* the *attraction of mountains* to be an argument against the *principle of gravitation*.

The doctrines of this author are new, and likely to be revolting, to the partisans of the theory of attraction. We think, therefore, that he very properly requests his readers to divest themselves of prejudice, and to read his work with coolness and patience. It would also have been an act of great prudence and policy, if he had warned his readers not to be deluded by that unfair prophetic caution, which Newton, foreseeing the enemies to his system whom future times were likely to produce, insidiously inserted in his *Principia*; "*Certe, contra experimentorum tenorem, somnia temere confingenda non sunt*," &c.

Art. XII. *Lettres Historiques et Critiques sur l'Italie*, &c. *i. e.* Historical and Critical Letters concerning Italy. By Charles de Brosses, First President of the Parliament of Dijon, and Member of the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres of Paris. With Notes relative to the present Situation of Italy, and an accurate List of the Pictures and Monuments brought to Paris from Milan, Rome, Venice, &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1799.

The satisfaction which we have derived from a perusal of these letters has been considerably diminished by their want of dates: no year is mentioned in them; nor is there a possibility of knowing whether they were written in winter or in summer, except by complaints of heat and cold. We have indeed internal evidence, from the illustrious persons, musicians, poets, and painters, of whom the author speaks as flourishing in Italy when he was there, that the letters were written during the eighteenth century: but at what particular period, we should not have been able to discover from the publication itself. However, on looking at the preface to *La Lande's Voyage d'Italie*, where the president De Brosses's travels into that country are mentioned, it is said: *ce Voyage est de* 1740:—but this only implies one year; and incidents of preceding and subsequent years are introduced, as if they had happened while the President was in Italy.

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* This philosophical instrument is a round piece of leather fastened in the middle to a string; with which, when wetted, boys amuse themselves in lifting up stones.

The editor of this posthumous publication, also, has neglected not only to give dates to the letters, but to furnish us with any other information concerning the author, than that which we find in the title-page. He *modestly* tells us, indeed, that 'France is richer in travels as well as in conquests, than any other nation. *Misson*, *La Lande*, *Richard*, *Grosley*, *Dupaty*, and many others, have provided us with interesting accounts of Italy: but they have by no means exhausted the subject. To their descriptions, that of a great master was still wanting: *the Letters of the President* De Brosses.' This high commendation stimulated our biographical curiosity, and induced us to inquire how a man, so little known in England, had rendered himself so illustrious in France; and the following is the result of our investigations.

Charles de Brosses, President of the Parliament of Burgundy, member of the Academy of Dijon, honorary associate of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres, was born at Dijon in 1709, and died at Paris in 1777. In the revolution of the Parliament in 1771, he consoled himself during his inaction by finishing a translation of Sallust, in which he had undertaken to supply the defects of the original. By joining his literary labours to those of his magistracy, his studies extended his professional knowlege, fortified his reason, and procured for him the reputation of a distinguished scholar.

In 1750, he published a curious account of the Antiquities of Herculaneum; in 1756, a History of the Navigations to the South Seas, or *Terra Australis;* in 1760, an Inquiry into the Worship of Idols, or a Parallel of antient Idolatry with that of the People of Nigritia; in 1765, a Treatise on the mechanical Formation of Languages; a work replete with sagacious and philosophical ideas on the origin and principles of language; and in 1777, he published at Dijon, in three volumes quarto, his

History of the Roman Republic during the course of the seventh century by Sallust, part translated, and part added from fragments of *Libri perditi* *. A profound knowlege of history appears in this work, but the style has been censured. Many of his memoirs were printed in those of the *Academies des Belles Lettres* of Paris and Dijon.

To these qualifications for a traveller into Italy, the editor has added that he manifested 'fidelity in his descriptions of festivals, manners, and monuments; and that he possessed an openness of heart, a lively imagination, a depth of thought, a simplicity of sentiment, and a pleasantry of style, which render the features of this work more prominent than those of any other of the same kind that has hitherto appeared.'

It is now our business to inquire into the propriety of this eulogy.

Letter I. To M. *de Blancey*.—*Route from Dijon to Avignon*.—The author had nothing very extraordinary to relate in this letter: but it furnishes a specimen of his playful style when matters of fact are scarce, and therefore we shall translate it; though it is very long:

'Here I am, my dear *Blancey*, arrived at my first station; (Avignon;) and agreeably to our compact, I ought to begin to assume the character of a *Tavernier*†. Roads, prospects, towns, churches, pictures, trivial incidents, useless details, beds, dinners, uninteresting occurrences,—you shall have them all.

'Now listen to the story true
  Of your old friend the Burgundinian;
His route determin'd to pursue,
  With *Loppin* under his dominion;
With mighty Rhone he swiftly flew,
  Till safe arriv'd at old Avignon.

'You know that we two set off on Saturday, 30th May, in my post-chaise, which carried us presently to Mâcon, where my horses were waiting for me. I there left the carriage, cousin *Loppin*, my clothes, and *Seigneur Pernet* my faithful valet-de-chambre, while I made a visit to my sister. I found her arranging a new house, and was treated very hospitably at supper with strawberries and other good fruits, green peas, and artichokes. I mention all this, because our friend, Father *Labbat*, says, we should never in narration omit to mention what we eat, since all good kind of people attend more to that than to any thing else which we can tell them. I remained there the next day, and on the 2d of June proceeded on horseback to Lyons, where M. *Loppin* ought to have met me by the diligence. The heat on this road was sufficient to make me rather wish to go to Norway than Rome: but I was still much worse off when I arrived: for my cousin, the geometrician, well acquainted with right-lines, had opposed with all his might the curve which I had described to Neuville; and his demonstration having failed, he was determined to be revenged. We were to have met at the Hotel du Parc; I arrived—*nihil.* I own that, if I had not been on the road to Rome, I should have thought it necessary to go thither to obtain absolution; the d—l of impatience had taken possession of me! Behold me now running to all the inns in the town; and after all this useless labour, finding myself without my trunk, my cousin, and what is worse, without money:—but in the midst of all my fury, as a god appeared in the opera to appease the rage of Orestes, such in my eyes seemed the faithful *Pernet*, who restored tranquillity to my soul. To calm my feelings completely by the sweet charms of music, we went to the opera, where I was very much pleased. The choruses are filled with the overflowings of Paris; the dresses are very splendid, and the decorations tolerable. The theatre is beautiful, but much too large for the audience, which was very thin. This is an epidemic disease, which will destroy all the operas in the country.

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* This publication was announced in our LVIth vol. p. 554, 555: but accident prevented us from executing our design of giving a more particular account of it.

† The celebrated French traveller.

'The next day we sojourned here much against my will; I wished to go by water to Avignon in a little post-boat, in order to save time: but my fellow-traveller had heard of stories about the dangers of the Rhone, sufficient to frighten Ulysses. He firmly determined not to enter Italy by the gulph of Lyons: declaring that so frail a machine was not fit for such bad swimmers as we were. It was in vain to preach intrepidity to him; rhetoric had no effect; and I was obliged to be content to travel by the common Avignon water-coach, or passage-boat, which was to set off the next morning. I amused myself, in the meantime, by seeing a curious operation performed by an English physician (oculist) the Chevalier Taylor, who removes the crystaline humour of the eye, by inserting into the cornea a small pointed steel instrument, or needle. This operation, which is called *couching for a cataract,* is extremely curious, and was performed with great dexterity by this man; who, in other respects, appeared to me an egregious quack.

'I went afterward to see a boat which has been built for the Duke *de Richelieu.* It consists of a small anti-chamber, on the side of which is a chimney fitted up with kitchen utensils; then a bed-chamber handsomely furnished, with a marble chimney-piece and glass; then a closet for writing, a water-closet, and a room for the servants separated by a gallery; altogether forming a very convenient habitation.—I shall say no more concerning Lyons, with which you are better acquainsed than I am. My friend *Pallu* had not yet taken possession of his appointment as *Intendant.* How many *bons mots* and bad jokes have we escaped! For you well know,

'That he ne'er fail'd his brain to rifle
Of ev'ry crude conceit and trifle.

'The next morning, to impress the Roman ladies with a proper idea of French cleanliness, I went to the baths. The bather began by assuring me that he was accustomed to bathe the Duke *de Villars* and the Cardinal *d'Auvergne*[*]: but I got off with only the fright.

The same day, at half past one, we entered this *blessed* aquatic-coach! where we had not been a minute before we resembled the children in the fiery-furnace. It was then that my cousin *Abednego* repented, too late, that he had not followed my advice.

'Nothing happened in the beginning of our voyage worth recounting, except meeting a great barge, dragged by eleven horses, and laden with chamber-pots.

'The banks of the river from Lyons are beautiful, rich, and covered with vineyards, gardens, and villas. On the Dauphiny side, it is all mountains, cloathed with wood.

'We arrived at Vienne at five o'clock. The monastery of the Fathers of St. Anthony gives a favourable prepossession at the entrance. It is handsome, and well situated on the banks of the Rhone: but this favourable idea vanishes on entering the town, which is exceedingly ugly and ill built. We found nothing tolerable in it but the church of St. Maurice, a Gothic edifice in a bad taste; the roof is handsome, painted blue, and very high. Here we saw three exhibitions at once: one in the choir, a scoundrel missionary roaring hymns to a congregation of men; one in the porch, a female sutler psalmodizing the praises of the brandy-bottle to a crowd of women; and one in the cloysters, the portrait of a pantaloon missionary, given among nincompoops.

'If the square before the church were enlarged and regular, its situation would make it magnificent: as on one side it is terminated by the front gate of the church, and on the other by the Rhône.' The city itself, built on the river side, is long and extremely narrow; it is very antient, and had been formerly of great extent; since, a quarter of a mile out of the town, we saw an obelisk among the vineyards, which formerly stood in the centre. It is entirely built close to a frightful mountain; on the top of which is the extensive circumference of a very old castle, quite in ruin; as is the bridge over the Rhône, which renders that part of the river somewhat more dangerous than the rest.

'At half past six we arrived at Condrieux, a small town in the Lyonnais. We proceeded this day nine leagues. Near this place is the famous *Côte-rôtie*, celebrated for its wine. I am not surprized at its being *rôtie*, (roasted,) situated as it is; since, though staying there but a moment, I was nearly calcined. The suburbs where we lodged were rather pleasant.

'We set out at three in the morning, and rowed all day between two high and barren mountains, with the wind in our teeth; leaving Ferrieres on the right, and St. Vallier on the left. We lay at Tournon, a small pretty town, with a fort and an old castle on a rock in the middle of the Rhône. The good fathers, the Jesuits, who with their accustomed sapience are the best lodged in the town, have, on a high tower, a terrace ornamented with balustrades, with a magnificent prospect.

'[*] Two personages remarkable for their more than equivocal morals.'

'Opposite to Tournon is the small town of Thain, overlooked by a mountain; and on the top of this is a small *Hermitage*, in the precincts of which grows the celebrated wine of that name. Though I am not a man to run mad after the pleasures of the table, I wisely dispatched one of my servants in a boat to procure a little stock of that wine for our voyage.

'We afterward passed the mouth of the Isere, an infamous river, if ever there was one which merited that title: 'Tis a decoction of slate.

'On the other side, on a sugar-loaf rock, is the old ruined castle of Crussol, whence the house of Uzés derives its name. The good people told us that a giant named Buard, fifteen cubits high, formerly lived here; if so, truly he must have stooped very low to get in.— This honest giant, having destroyed all mankind, determined to re-people the world, and build a city: for which purpose, he played the Hercules with all the girls in the country, and peopled the town of Valence, which he had constructed, with his own progeny. Some of the reverend Jacobin priests shewed us his bones, which are certainly those of a great beast: but, as every kind of great beast is more common than giants, you are not obliged to believe that these were the bones of his pretended highness Buard. The d—l take any giant who built this miserable town; where we could get nothing that was not detestable!

'On quitting this place, the mountains separate, and begin to form a most agreeable perspective. The arch in the Vivarais forms one so beautiful, that I thought it merited a place in my Journal.

'At length, after having proceeded twenty-five leagues, we arrived at Enconne, a small village in Dauphiny, half a league from Montelimart; a miserable lodging, notwithstanding its promising name.

'At four in the morning we again went on board our boat. As the rocks approached nearer to each other in this part of the Rhône, the river gallops at a great rate; and the wind having changed to the north in the night, we seemed to fly. We soon passed Viviers, a pretty considerable town among horrible rocks, with a strong castle, which will not be easily taken by *escalade*. Hence we passed to Saint-Andéol: where are many sunken rocks. The river now became more rapid, and the north wind increased; notwithstanding which our pilots (desperate people, no doubt,) set two sails; thus equipt, we passed under the bridge *Saint-esprit*. It is an idle bug-bear with which people are frightened about this passage; we glide smoothly through it, without the least danger: but it is not without reason that this bridge is mentioned as extraordinary; it is extremely beautiful with respect to height, length, the width of the arches, and the light construction of the piles. I measured it every way. It is 1118 feet long by only 15 wide. The arches, under one of which I passed, and which are 19 in number of the large kind, besides middling and small, are 33 paces in breadth. Each pier is hollowed in the middle by a kind of arch-way. One side of an arch was lately repaired, and cost 10,000 livres. The pavement on the top, which is cement and chalk, corresponds with the beauty of the rest. Carts and waggons, even when empty, are only suffered to go over on sledges: but chaises and coaches, if loaded, are allowed to pass. At the end of the bridge, on the side of the town, is a citadel flanked with four bastions well faced, and surrounded with a fossé also well faced. The town of St. Esprit is tolerably well built. I began to fancy myself in Provence, on seeing in the market lemons sold for six sous, or three-pence a dozen. The country farther on is not disagreeable; it is covered with a fine verdure as far as Caderousse, a little town of the Comtat, appertaining to the Duke of that name.

'On the other side is Rochmaure, in Languedoc, an old grotesque castle, which seems to have been built of the refuse materials of the tower of Babel. Hereabouts are many more dangerous parts of the Rhône than those which have been mentioned. My rascal of a pilot amused himself with eating asparagus in a corner of the boat; (I never could abide gluttons;) when all at once, I heard a great scream; I was in a corner translating Italian, and thought myself translated into the other world. We struck against the rocks; and I heard the cry of "we are all lost!" I started up, and found it a false report; and that the danger which we had run, for the 'sparagus, was over. You see how great events often rise from small causes: but had we been lost for green peas! I should not have grumbled.—At length we arrived here without running any new risques; and now,

'Thank my stars! I'm safe and sound,
For I tread on Papal ground.'

The IId Letter, addressed to the same gentleman, contains an account of the city of Avignon, under the title of *Memoire*; and it is more amusing and satisfactory than any description of that antient and eventful city which we have seen. We find, by a passage in this letter, that the President was a draughtsman, and that *Bouchardon*, the sculptor, had many of his drawings; which circumstance will give weight to his opinions in speaking of the fine arts.—Here he meets the celebrated connoisseurs *Lacurni* and *de St. Palaye*.

Our traveller is certainly a man of taste, and a real judge of painting: but he has an opinion concerning the works of Raphael which seems to be singular. He says, in this letter, —'In the cathedral I stopped, on the right, to look at a Madonna by Raphael; which most people pass in silence. The works of this master of masters *strike not at first*, but after a while, and a spectator is never tired of considering them; he is not a seducer, but an enchanter.' On the contrary, from what we have felt and observed, such are the grace and beauty of this exquisite painter's works, that they strike the most ignorant observer, *at the first glance*, as productions of a superior artist; without previous instruction, or the prejudices which the mention of his great name would excite.

The author dwells on the merits of many excellent pictures which he found in the churches of Avignon. Where they are now, it is not easy to divine: though, as this city no longer appertains to a foreign power, but is united to the dominions of France, it may be hoped that they have been allowed to remain stationary.

Letter III. *Route from Avignon to Marseilles*.—The opening of this letter is lively.

'At 5 o'clock in the morning we separated in two divisions: *St. Palaye*, in quality of protector of all the old sonnets, was determined to visit the margin of the Fountain of Vaucluse, to deplore with Petrarca the death of his beautiful Laura; for my part, who am not a knight errant in the service of the ladies, I turned towards Aix, in a little cabriole drawn by two mules. There is an irreconcileable enmity between this sort of carriage and the *os sacrum*; and I verily believe that,

"From Paris to Rome, if you try all you can,
You'll not find a pre-eminent jolter of man."

'The sight, however, of the most beautiful country that can be imagined, diverted my attention from the lamentations of my posteriors at being the victims of my curiosity.'

Aix, in Provence, is very well described in this letter; and a parallel is drawn between that city and Dijon.—The account of Marseilles and its environs furnishes an article more ample and interesting than we have found elsewhere. From an eminence near that city, (says the author,) are seen 'on the right, the Mediterranean, the Castle d'If, and the adjacent isles in perspective; in front, the city of Marseilles, commanded by the citadel and the mountains which terminate the prospect; and on the left, a valley so full of *Bastides*, (or country houses,) trees, and gardens; that, if it were inclosed with walls, it would form a city resembling Constantinople. There are at least 3000 of these villas.'

The interior of Marseilles may be divided into three distinct cities:—but we must restrain our pen, and refer to the work itself, or we shall never arrive in Italy;—we meet with so much amusement on the road through the best parts of France, and which are not so well described perhaps in any other book of travels.—After the President has finished his description of the city of Marseilles, he owns that, in general, he did not experience that the country was either so hot or so beautiful as he expected. 'At every step in this province, we find what is *agreeable*, but never what is *necessary*; and to tell you the truth, Provence is but a perfumed beggar.'

The author's description of the city of Toulon is not very splendid. He says that it is small, and has nothing considerable in itself, except one long street, ill built. However, the port, and the road for ships, are extremely fine; as are the magazines, rope-yards, &c. The harbour is capable of containing 400 ships of war.

On quitting Toulon, the traveller found vineyards and forests of olive trees, 'but the defect of this country is that it is so extremely dry; having scarcely any rivers, no green fields, and consequently no cattle.'

Speaking of the little town of Videnhau, the jocose President says to his friend—'you may imagine whether the lord of this village was an agreeable man, and a favourite of the ladies, when I tell you that, on my arrival, every body took me for him.' Had M. DE BROSSES a very unpleasant aspect?

The route from Antibes to Genoa, partly in a felucca, and partly over the mountains, with descriptions of the towns of Nice, Monaco, San Remo, Final, and Savona, (all, says the editor of this work, now swallowed up in the French Republic,) are curious, and would be useful to travellers; whom the President advises never to go any other way from France to Italy, than through Piedmont.

Letter V. To the Same. *Residence at Genoa.*—The author being now fairly landed in Italy, and being a lover of the arts, he will have sufficient opportunities of displaying his knowlege.—The city of Genoa has been so often described, that every reader of travels must be acquainted with its principal features. Who has not been told, in or out of print, that the houses are built of marble, with the fronts painted; that they are six or seven stories high; and that many of the streets are so narrow as not to exceed an ell in breadth? M. DE BROSSES says that 'it is not extravagance but necessity which makes marble so common at Genoa.' There is no other material for building, and the neighbouring mountains abound with quarries of marble so profusely, that even in the villages the churches are built of that elegant material; and they are filled with tolerable pictures. The antient government consisted of a Doge, or temporary sovereign, (a king for two years,) and two classes of hereditary nobility: the higher class may be termed the House of Lords, and the second the House of Commons. Such was the system when M. DE B. was there: but the editor, in a note, tells us that nobility is now abolished at Genoa; and that the French, in gratitude for the firmness with which the inhabitants have adhered to their cause during the Revolution, in spite of all the threats of the Austrians, have rewarded them with a government similar to their own, consisting of a Directory and two Councils.—'In order to figure among the learned, (says M. DE B.) we inquired for men of letters:—but *nibil.* This is not the country for them; the merchants amuse themselves with nothing so unprofitable, and are acquainted with no other letters than letters of exchange.'

Letter VI. To M. *de Quintin.—Memoranda concerning Genoa.*—This correspondent being an *amateur* in painting, our author riots in *connoisseurship*, and gives an ample list of the pictures in the churches of Genoa: but, as he is advancing into parts of Italy much more rich in works of art than this republic, we shall make no other extracts from this letter than that of the last period; in which the author says to his friend: 'you will tell me that these catalogues give you very little information: but do other catalogues furnish more? The truth is that it would have cost me *a furious long time*, and deep meditation, minutely to express the beauties and defects of each picture.'

Letter VII. To M. *de Neuilly.—Route from Genoa to Milan, through Pavia.*—'One of the greatest pleasures which Genoa afforded us was that of quitting it. Ah! how true is the proverb: *huomini senza fede!* Trades-people, inn-keepers, postmasters, labourers, and friars; they are all knaves and cheats beyond imagination! I quit these reptiles of republicans in the utmost rage.'—The traveller then very feelingly describes the bad road to Pavia. He saw nothing in the cathedral of that city but a pulpit which turns round a pillar; it is ornamented with good *bassi relievi* in wood, and supported by the twelve apostles, in the manner of Cariatides. He adds, 'they shewed me, in a corner, the lance of the puissant Orlando: but be not offended, if I should tell you that it is only the mast of a ship, with which he intended, in his rage, to annihilate Medoro.—They made me visit many places in the neighbourhood of Pavia, which disappointed me: but when we have seen so much, and have still so many finer things to see, we grow fastidious.'

A little on one side of the road from Pavia to Milan, is the Carthusian Monastery, one of the most renowned establishments in Italy. It was near this convent, that the famous battle of Pavia was fought, in which Francis the 1st was taken prisoner. The way from Pavia to Milan is less a public road than a grand avenue, bordered by two rows of trees, with canals on each side; the country is beautiful and verdant: but, being flat, it is rather too much covered with trees.

Letter VIII. To the Same.—*Account of Milan.*—The President observes that he had so long heard of the wonderful structure called the *Duomo*, or Cathedral at Milan, of which the front is said by the Italians to be *la cosa la piu stupenda, la piu maravigliosa;* that he did not rest, after his arrival, till he had seen it. As usual, previous praise had rendered expectation unreasonable: it had diminished its size, deformed the ornaments, and rendered our traveller blind to its real beauty and magnificence. However, after having grumbled through all the ailes, in all the chapels, up and down all the stairs, even from the subterraneous chapel to the summit of the dome, we have been able to gather the few following roses among his brambles and briars.

> 'There are, nevertheless, in this cathedral, many remarkable things: the edifice is of a surprising grandeur, though it does not appear so at first sight. Within are double columns, besides the chapels; the whole supported by ten rows of white marble pillars, of an extraordinary height and size; the pavement inlaid with marble:—the whole inside of the church is of white marble—the sides, and back of the building without, are as highly finished as the front—the inside of the choir is carved in wood, and the outside in marble. The sculptures, within especially, are very remarkable for their beauty and high finishing. Under the choir, is a subterraneous chapel well designed, containing such a number of holy bodies, that paradise can hardly be more crowded with them,' &c.

Though the author appeared somewhat unwilling to be pleased with the churches and public buildings of Milan, many of them extort praises from him in the midst of censure; and the paintings of Leonardo da Vinci, Titian, and Raphael, excite enthusiasm. Pictures by other masters are without end. 'In the church of St. Augustin, is an altar supported by four pillars of Porphyry; with an inscription on the side of an Emperor, *Ludovicus Cæsar*, which put *Sainte Palaye* in a terrible agitation of antiquarian spirit. I left him in meditation on it, while I examined a serpent of bronze placed on a column, which passes here for the true brazen serpent of the desert.'

M. DE B. renders justice to what *was* the Ambrosian library, to the free access to it, and to the civility of the *Custodi*. 'They say that it contains 35,000 volumes, but the most considerable article is the MSS. which amount to 15,000.'

The pictures and curiosities in the gallery of the Ambrosian library are very numerous, valuable, and well described. Raphael's famous design for the school of Athens, the MSS. of Leonardo da Vinci, and collections of designs by other masters, *were* in the archives of this library when it was visited by the President.

Letter IX. To M. *de Blancey.—Residence at Milan. Excursion to the Borrhomean Islands.*—The author laments that he was not at Milan during the opera season: but he was alert in making himself amends, by hearing music somewhere every day; and, considering the state in which music was at Paris, when he travelled, his taste seems to be very good. As yet, he is not in humour with the *soprano* voices of the *Evirati*, but was enchanted by the singing of two nuns much celebrated at that time, and with the airs, symphonies, and choruses. He is somewhat offended with the exaggerated praise given to the performers, and the eternal *issimos* which he heard lavished on all occasions; yet in all probability, he will heartily join in them, before he leaves Italy. The productions of art highly polished, and the abilities of artists far beyond that maukish *mediocrity* which " neither gods nor men can bear," insensibly elevate spectators and hearers of sensibility into the regions of enthusiasm.

The traveller's account of his voyage to the Borrhomean isles is so curious and entertaining, that we should present it to our readers, if we had not already been liberal in our quotations from this volume. The character of San Carlo, and the list of his public works, with the description of the pyramid of gardens, are interesting and curious.

Letter X. *To the President Boutrier.*—The account here given of a kind of literary phænomenon is so uncommon, that we cannot avoid transcribing it. The President, in the inflated language of the Italians, says, it appeared to him *una causa* (*cosa*) *piu stupenda* than the *Duomo* at Milan. This was a young lady about eighteen or twenty years of age, *la Signorina Agnesi*, whom he calls a walking polyglott; and who, not contented with knowing all the oriental languages, undertook to support a *thesis* on any science, against any one who chose to contend with her. At a *conversatione* to which our traveller and his nephew were invited, they found about thirty persons of all the European nations, ranged in a circle, and la Signorina Agnesi, with her little sister, seated under a canopy. This young lady, who was neither ugly nor handsome, had a fine complexion, and an air extremely simple, soft, and feminine.

> ' I had imagined, (says the President,) when I went to this assembly, that it was merely to converse with this young lady, in the usual way, on learned subjects; instead of which, the Count *Belloni*, who had introduced me, made a fine harangue to the lady in Latin, with college formality. She answered him extremely well: after which they began a disputation in the same language, on the origin of fountains, and on the causes of the flux and reflux which some of them have, like the sea. She spoke like an angel on this subject; and I never heard it treated more to my satisfaction. I was then desired by the Count to discuss any topic that pleased me with her, in the same manner, provided that it was philosophical or mathematical. I was quite stupified with fear, on finding that I was expected to harangue *extempore*, and to speak for an hour in a language of which I had lost the use: however, such as it was, I made her the best compliment that I could form; after which we disputed, at first, on
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the manner in which the soul is impressed with corporeal objects, and afterward communicating them to the organs of the brain; and then on the emanation of light, and the prismatic colours. *Loppin* discoursed with her on the subject of diaphonous bodies, and curvilinear figures in geometry, of which I did not understand a word. He spoke in French, and she begged permission to answer him in Latin, fearing that she should not recollect the technical terms which she should want in the French language.

' She spoke wonderfully on these points, for which she could not have been prepared more than ourselves. She is much attached to the philosophy of Newton, and it is marvellous to see a person of her age conversant with such abstruse subjects. Yet, however astonished I may have been with her science, I have been much more amazed to hear her speak Latin (a language which certainly she could not have occasion to use often) with such purity, ease, and accuracy, that I cannot say that I ever read any book in modern Latin, written in so classical a style as that in which she pronounced these discourses. After she had replied to *Loppin*, the conversation became general; every one speaking to her in the language of his country, and she answering him in the same dialect. She told me that she was very sorry that the visit had taken the form of a Thesis; that she very much disliked speaking on such subjects in company; where, for one who was amused, twenty were tired to death; and that such themes were only fit for two or three persons of similar taste. This observation appeared to me at least as full of good sense as her discourses. I was very sorry to hear that she was determined to take the veil; not for want of fortune, because she is rich. After we had conversed, her little sister played on the harpsichord, like another Rameau, some of Rameau's own pieces, and then others of her own composition; concluding by singing some airs in which she accompanied herself.'

Letter XI. *Route from Milan to Verona. Description of Mantua.*—The road to this city, its insular situation, fortifications, pictures, and public buildings, are well described: as, in the XIIth letter, are Verona and Vicenza.

Letter XIII. *Concerning Padua.*—Here neither the institute nor the cathedral of *Saint Antonio di Padova* is forgotten. The library of the University is said by the author to contain an astonishing number of old books, printed before the year 1500; and he refers to the first volume of Mattaire's (not *Maittaire's*) *Annales Typographiques* for a catalogue. After a minute description of the pictures in the church of Saint Anthony, musical readers will naturally expect some account of its famous choral establishment and its four organs; as also of *Tartini*, who was then living, and was leader of the band: but all this is reserved for a future page of the present volume.

Letters XIV to XVIII give an ample description of Venice and its riches in works of art: respecting which we have no room for either praise or censure, though the author's opinions would admit of both.

Letter XIX. *Route from Venice to Bologna.*—In this letter, the author says:

> 'At our return from Venice to Padua, we could not help stopping to hear *Tartini*, who generally passes for the best performer on the violin in Italy; and our time was not ill employed. I have never heard his equal for clearness of tone, neatness of execution, and perfect intonation. His style of playing resembles that of *le Clerc;* there is nothing astonishing in his execution: his excellence is extreme accuracy. In all other respects, *la Marianna*, of the *Ospidaletto* at Venice, is his superior: but he has not his equal in good sense. This youth, (*Garçon*) who was not intended for the profession of music, and who was obliged to have recourse to it for a subsistence, after being abandoned by his parents for having contracted a foolish marriage while he was a student in the university of Padua, is polite, well-bred, and without vanity or caprice; he reasons like an angel, and without partiality, on the different merits of the French and Italian music. I was fully as much satisfied with his conversation as with his performance.'

This account nearly agrees with that which was given of *Tartini* by Dr. Burney, in 1770*: but why the President calls him a *garçon* in the year 1740, when this celebrated musician was 46 years of age, and not a bachelor, we cannot conceive.

In the subsequent letters, (XX, XXI, and XXII.) of this volume, we have a memoir of Bologna; an account of the author's residence there; and of the principal pictures in that city, with short remarks:—to which, as an appendix, the editor has given a list of the pictures sent from Italy to Paris, by the Commissaries of the French Government. It is alphabetical, and includes a short history of the life and works of the several artists who have produced these pictures, and forms the most ample and complete list of Italian spoils which we have seen. We can afford our readers only the names of the plundered cities, and the pictures of each great master in round numbers.

The cities laid under contribution are, Bologna, Cento, Cremona, Fano, Foligno, Loretto, Mantua, Milan, Modena, Parma, Perugia, Peraro, Piacenza, Rome, Venice, and Verona. The paintings are: of Abani 1, Alfani 2, Bansang 1, Barocci 6, Bellini 1, Breughel 5, Caravaggio (Mich. Angelo) 1, of six figures bigger than the life; of Annibal Caracci 4, Augustino Caracci 3, Ludovico Caracci 7, of the three Caracci 6, Cavedone 1, Contarino 1, Correggio 5, Dominichini 3, Dossi 1, Ferrari 1, Feti 1, Garofalo 3, Gennari 3, Guercino 28,

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* *Present State of Music in France and Italy*, Art. *Padua.*

Guisoni 1, Guido 12, Lana 1, Lelio Orsi 1, Luini 2, Mantegna 5, Mazzola 1, Parmegiano 1, Paolo Veronese 12, Perugino 17, Pordenone 1, Poussin (Nicolas) 1, Procaccini (Camillo) 1, Procaccini (Giulio Cesare) 1, Raphael 8, Sacchi 2, Salvator Rosa 1, Schidone 1, Solario 1, Spada 4, Tiriani 2, Tintoretto 3, Titiano 4, Valentini 4.—Total, 172 pictures; 22 statues of marble and bronze; 12 antique marble busts; and six or eight bassi relievi in bronze.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XIII. *Lichenographia Suecica Prodromus. Auctor* ERIK ACHARIUS, *Med. Doct. &c.*—8vo. pp. 264. Lincopiæ. 1798.

AMONG the numerous improvements which the science of Botany has received since the æra of the immortal Linné, certainly none is more important, nor more remarkable, than the superior knowlege which has been acquired of the almost infinite tribe of vegetables comprehended in his system under the class *Cryptogamia.* To a botanist of the present day, it cannot fail to be matter of astonishment, that so little had formerly been done in this immense department of natural history; which, until our own times, was almost universally considered as unworthy the notice of a man of science; and in studying which, it had been supposed, no man would waste his attention, who could devote it to any other object. "*Muscos et qui muscas legit, huic aliud non suppetit negotium.*" On this subject, the votaries of natural history in foreign countries, at the same time that they acknowlege the zeal and abilities which many English botanists display in the study of their favorite science, do not hesitate to arrogate to themselves a considerable pre-eminence; and, if it be by works similar to those which are the subject of the present and following article *, that the learned world is to decide on the justice of their claim, we fear that, however national partiality might incline the bias, it would be difficult for us to deliver an opinion in opposition to their pretensions.

Dr. ACHARIUS, author of the volume before us, has been long celebrated as one of the most indefatigable observers of the genus *Lichen*, on account of the papers which he published on this subject in the Transactions of the Royal Swedish Academy at Stockholm; although these papers, from being unfortunately written in his native language, have been by no means so universally known as their utility required, and their excellence deserved. It had been his intention to have given to the world a complete *Lichenographia Suecica:* but the labour of such a task was so incompatible with his other pursuits, and he saw so much probability that, if he persevered in this resolution, the appearance of his work would be protracted to a greater length of time than he wished, that he determined to relinquish this idea, and to publish the present volume; which being called a *Prodromus*, we have room for hoping that his more perfect work is only deferred, not abandoned. It is scarcely possible for any author to come forwards with more advantage than Dr. Acharius enjoys; since there is no country, at least in Europe, in which *Lichens* grow in a more luxuriant profusion than on the bleak rocks and wide-extended hills of Sweden; and since, from having been a pupil of Linné himself, he can justly claim a more certain knowlege of the species designed by that able naturalist, than can be boasted by almost any other botanist: more especially as we have understood that the *Herbarium* in the possession of Dr. Smith is particularly deficient in specimens of this extensive tribe. On this subject, we quote his own words: '*Sæpius exteri scriptores minus ritè cognoverunt species à LINNÆO nostro jam pridem commemoratas, ac proinde eis nomina tribuerunt nonnunquam peregrina et prorsus impropria.—Confusionem inde exortam certiori nixus rei notitia, quantum in me fuit, tollere studui. Hinc equidem spero me paulo accuratius explanasse species ab Illustri Viro allatas.*'

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* It was our intention to have accompanied this article by an account of SWARTZ's *Muscologia*, which we now design for our next Appendix.

With regard to dividing the Lichens into many separate genera, as had been done by Professor *Hoffman* and several foreign botanists, we own that we were not displeased to find the present author averse from such a step, till a more accurate knowlege of their fructification and the parts subservient to it shall be obtained.

> '*Plurimas ob causas, easq. haud spernendas, Ill. Linnæus non nisi unicum statuit Genus. Recentiores ævi percelebres Botanici eundem hunc secuti sunt magni nominis antesignanum. Me certe hucusque nec propria indagatior nec aliorum demonstrationes impulere quin deveneranda olim Præceptoris mei sententiam, absque omni partium studio, velut rectissimam sequar. Antequam hâc in re aliquod cum successu negotium suscipiatur, me quidem judice, multo perfectior Lichenum fecundationis organorumque propagationis, ac fortassis fructificationis et disseminationis, antepenenda est cognitio. Quanto enim Lichenes a plantis conformatione, indole, atque naturâ suâ singulari recedunt, tanto difficilior nostra existit opera, si in plura genera eos dispesceremus, nimirum quando horum characteres ex iisdem fructificationis fundamentis desumere conaremur.*'

At the same time, however, that he makes this remark, he gives, with some alterations, a method which he had already published in the *Nov. Act. Reg. Acad. Sc. Suec.* tom. xv. p. 244;

by which, he is of opinion, the knowlege of them will be facilitated, and some of those difficulties removed, on account of which they have hitherto been considered as one of the most intricate and perplexing parts of botany. We regret that the necessary limits of our critique will not allow us to lay this subdivision before our botanical readers: but even this circumstance will be the source of pleasure, if it should induce them to become purchasers of a work from which we can promise them not less amusement than instruction.

There is one other point which we must not omit to mention, in which Dr. ACHARIUS seems to have rendered an essential service to the nomenclature of Botany; viz. that he has distinguished, according to their form, &c. the shields of Lichens; and, instead of keeping them under one or two general names, he has divided them into *Scutellæ, Peltæ, Tubercula, Cistellæ, Thalami, Lirellæ, Tricæ, Glomeruli, Cyphellæ,* and *Bacilla:* to each of which terms he has added a complete definition.

It now only remains for us to give a general idea of the plan of the work, and to state a few instances in which we have observed any striking difference from preceding authors. On the latter head, however, we shall be very sparing; as we trust, even if no British Botanist should be induced to favor the public with a *Lichenographia Anglica,* (a work much to be desired,) that still Mr. Dickson in his fourth *Fasciculus,* and Dr. Smith in his *Flora,* will avail themselves of the hints and emendations suggested in the present volume. Descriptions of every Swedish species are here given, amounting to the surprizing number of 345; to which are added the synonyms of all principal authors; references to almost every figure extant; and in general a short note designed either to point out some striking peculiarity, or to separate the plant more effectually from its congeners. Subjoined to the end of every tribe, are the foreign species mentioned by authors of credit, with their characters; those which Dr. ACHARIUS had seen being marked with an asterisk, and those which he had never had an opportunity of examining being distinguished by a cross.—On the title page of the work is a neat figure of *Lichen Acharii,* a crustaceous species apparently very different from any that has fallen under our observation; besides which we find two coloured plates, representing *Lichen Dillenianus, L. Swartzii, L. Ehrartianus,* and *L. Westringii;* all new to us, unless the third should be, as is suggested by the author, *L. graniformis.*

Among the most remarkable deviations from preceding writers, none strike us as more worthy of notice than that their *L. cinereus, pallescens,* and *centrifugus,* are not the true plants of

Linné; that *L. frigidus* is the same with *L. tartareus*; that *L. sphæroides* of Dickson is the *L. vernalis*, Linn.; that *L. quernus*, Dickson, is made a variety of *L. hæmatomma* (surely this is wrong); and that *L. fluviatilis*, Huds. changes its name to *L. hydaterpus*, and *L. fluviatilis Weber* to *L. Weberi.*

ART. XIV. *Voyage autour du Monde, &c. i.e.* A Voyage round the World, during the Years 1790, 1791, and 1792, by STEPHEN MARCHAND; preceded by an Historical Introduction; Inquiries concerning the Discoveries of Sir Francis Drake; and a critical Examination of the Voyage of Roggeween. With Charts: by *C. P. Claret Fleurieu*, of the National Institute, and of the Board of Longitude. 8vo. 5 Vols, and 4to Atlas. Paris, 1798—1800. Imported by De Boffe, London.

IT is not a little remarkable that, of the many voyages round the world which have been performed, two only have been executed by French navigators. The editor of the present work, *M. Fleurieu*, observes that, before the expedition here recorded, *Bougainville* had not among his countrymen either model or imitator. The unfortunate *La Pérouse* was not permitted to complete his undertaking; and the travels of *Gentil la Barbinais* and *Pagès*, being made partly by sea and partly by land, are not to reckoned among the number of circumnavigations of the globe.

In addition to the voyage of MARCHAND, these volumes comprehend a body of disquisition on subjects highly interesting to geographers; and the manner in which some of them are treated by the author will probably excite more than common attention. The whole occupies five octavo volumes, and one quarto, which have been printed at successive times during the last three years: but we have received them so very lately, that we can at present only notice their contents in a general manner, and make a few observations on the Historical Introduction.

The Ist. and IId. volumes contain, besides the introduction, the narrative of Capt. MARCHAND's voyage. The IIId. is almost wholly given to the account of the observations made in the course of that expedition, and to nautical remarks respecting the navigation, &c.

Vol. IV. and part of the Vth. are occupied with descriptions of botanical productions, and other objects of natural history. The latter part of the fifth contains an examination of some of the discoveries of Sir Francis Drake, and of the accounts of *Roggeween*'s voyage which have appeared. These examinations are to be considered as the sequel of those published by the author in 1790, under the title of *Découvertes* *des Français dans le Sud-Est de la Nouvelle Guinée, précédées de l'abrégé historique des Navigations et des Découvertes des Espagnols dans les mêmes Parages.*—The last volume contains charts and plates, and a memoir on the hydrographical division of the globe; and on the general Nomenclature; with some proposed alterations.—Other matters of less consequence occur in this and in the other volumes, which will be noticed when we enter more into particulars.

In the Introduction, *M. Fleurieu* has given a brief and methodical history of the progressive discoveries made on the western coast of North America, from the first discovery of California to our own times; and, with great diligence, he has compared the early accounts with those of modern voyagers. This critical examination was read at the National Institute, *Messidor, An* 5; at which time the author had not the benefit of the discoveries made in Capt. Vancouver's voyage; consequently, many points were then doubtful to him which that expedition has since ascertained. *M. Fleurieu* has conducted his inquiries with clearness of judgment; and, as the question of a navigable passage through North America stood at the time of reading his memoir, he has shewn a freedom from prejudice which has not often been found in those who have been equally interested in the subject. Capt. Vancouver's survey has very much narrowed the ground on which the question rested, but we do not regard the discussion as entirely settled. The opportunities of acquiring information, which M. *Fleurieu* has enjoyed, have furnished his treatise with some particulars not generally known, respecting the later Spanish discoveries, and their settlements north of California.

The memoir commences with a short review of the early discoveries, in which the doubtful relations of the voyages attributed to *Da Fuca* and *Fuente* are particularly examined. Of the modern discoveries on the west coast of America, those of the Russians are first noticed, as being first in the order of time. It was not till the year 1769 that, awakened by the success of the commercial undertakings of that nation, and by the jealousy lest some others not less enterprizing should establish themselves in the countries to the north, the Spanish Government decided on realizing those claims which were antiently founded on the ceremony of taking possession; although, says the writer, it must at all times have been evident that this sort of act would be considered by every other power as a vain formality: exciting pretensions which are advanced on no other basis than the accidental circumstance of a first discovery; and as at the most a project of occupation, the execution of which is referred to an uncertain period. *M. Fleurieu* adds, that there is one thing wanting to these acts of taking possession; the ratification by the native proprietor, the natural sovereign.

'The Spaniards, however, (says the editor,) decided, as far as they were able, and without intending it, a question which their interest required to remain undisturbed; whether the simple discovery and the form of taking possession, unaccompanied by any step towards the execution, can supply the place of a real title of propriety and right of occupation? Had Spain forgotten that, in 1578, Admiral Drake, who discovered New Albion, comprehending more than 200 leagues of coast between 37 and 48 degrees of latitude, had solemnly taken possession of all the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth; and if, at the present day, England chose to revive this pretended title of propriety, could Spain fancy herself founded in maintaining that time had effaced the title? I am only the historian, and ought to leave the question to be determined by those who are more versed in the law of nations. It is probable that their judgment would be, after having consulted the primitive rights of the native inhabitants, that the claims of both the one and the other side are founded on usurpation and the abuse of power.'

It was, however, resolved to establish a presidency at *Monterey* and *San Diego.*

'It was necessary to have recourse to some illusive expedient, to conceal even from themselves the injustice of such an usurpation; and the Spanish Government imagined that they were sufficiently justified in the eyes of mankind, as well as in their own, by associating the cause of religion with the project of iniquity. They spoke only of the propagation of the faith, and of the conversion of infidels; covering, with a respectable veil, the true motives of their enterprize. Missionary priests were destined to accompany the army.—'

The forces appointed to this service were divided; one part proceeding by land, the other in vessels along the coast. The Spanish relation of the expedition was published by the government of New Spain; and though the work is very scarce, M. *Fleurieu* obtained a copy.

The Spanish attempts at discovery are not held in higher estimation by this author than they were by his friend *M. la Pérouse.* In one of their late expeditions towards the North (in 1788), *M. Fleurieu* relates that the only discovery of importance made was from some conversations with the Russians, by which they learned that the governor of Kamtschatka had it in contemplation to occupy the port of Nootka in the name of the Empress of Russia. This rumour, whether well or ill founded, determined the Viceroy of Mexico to possess himself of that port; and that no one might be ignorant of the rights of Spain, the name of *Nueva California* was affixed to the countries in that neighbourhood.

The result of *M. Fleurieu's* examination of modern researches, and comparison of them with the early accounts, tends to establish the reality of the old discoveries in the most material points; notwithstanding that the fabulous matter, with which they are interwoven, gives to the whole a very strong appearance of invention. In our review of Captain Vancouver's Voyage[*], we expressed a similar opinion. Indeed, the existence of a strait and of an archipelago of islands being proved, and nearly though not exactly in the situations represented, appears to us to be a circumstance of co-incidence so immediately to the point, that we cannot find reasonable ground for refusing to believe that the old accounts were founded on actual discovery.

The editor takes occasion, in his account of the commercial expeditions to the Western coast of North America, to animadvert on some expressions in the published account of Captain Dixon's voyage, which seem to convey insinuations to the prejudice of *M. de la Pérouse* and his officers: but the character of *M. de la Pérouse* is too well known and established to require defence; and no part of his character or conduct was more conspicuous than his generous treatment, and not less than parental care, of his ship's company. Nevertheless, it would be unjust on that account to suffer any illiberal attack to pass without reprehension. In the French translation of that voyage, the passage is made more objectionable than in the original, by the words "*They are said to have traced the North-west coast of America,*" &c. being rendered "*Ils pretendent,*" &c. We shall extract the passage from the original.

> "They are said to have traced the north-west coast of America from the Spanish settlement of Monterey to 60 degrees north latitude; but this seems rather improbable, for though these vessels were professedly fitted out on discovery, yet the commanders did not forget that furs were a valuable article, and accordingly, whilst on the American coast, they procured about 600 sea-otter skins, chiefly in pieces, of a very inferior quality, and evidently the same as those imported by the Spaniards; whereas had these gentlemen been well in with the coast to the northward, they undoubtedly must have met with sea-otter skins of a quality far superior to what they procured."

This passage is in many respects exceptionable, but chiefly for the liberty of censure in which the writer has indulged himself, on no better grounds than unexamined information and surmise.

The skins carried to China by M. *de la Pérouse* were of the finest quality; and though the greater part of them were old and much worn, they sold for a very considerable sum: (55,000 *livres tournois;*) the whole of which was divided among the seamen and soldiers of the two frigates, without the superior officers (*Etat-major*) receiving the least portion.—The expressions above quoted are attributed by M. *Fleurieu* to national jealousy: but we are rather of opinion that they were dictated chiefly by a spirit of commercial jealousy, and by disappointment at finding that the China market had already been in part supplied.

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[*] See Vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 1. 141. 374.

The respect shewn in this work to the memory of our justly celebrated countryman, Capt. Cook, it would be ungrateful in us to pass unnoticed. 'His tragical death,' says the writer, 'terminated the most laborious and useful career that any navigator has ever performed.'—The verse "*Hic tandem stetimus nobis ubi defuit orbis,*" which was applied to the French philosophers in Lapland, M. *Fleurieu* has imitated in the following French couplet, as applicable to the two polar voyages (one to the South, the other to the North,) performed by Capt. Cook; who proceeded towards each pole, till obstructed by the ice:

> '*L'Argonaute Breton que Neptune admira,*
> *Ne put être arrêté qu'ou la Mer lui manqua.*'
>
> 'The British Argonaut by Neptune honor'd sails,
> And holds his course 'till e'en old Ocean fails.'

This introduction contains much animated narrative, and much curious information, clearly arranged; and though some of the writer's remarks are too often repeated, they are the observations of an experienced and reflecting mind.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XV. *Memoria sobre hum projecto de Pasigraphia,* &c. i. e. A Memoir concerning a Plan of Pasigraphy. By J. M. DANTAS PEREIRA, Captain of a Frigate, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon, Preceptor to H. R. H. the Infant Don Pedro, &c. Folio. pp. 34. Lisbon. 1800.

TOWARDS the middle of the seventeenth century, when the greater number of European nations had considerably advanced in science and literature, authors began to write more frequently than before in their own language; and the Latin, which till then had been most generally used in learned works, gradually ceased to be the common vehicle of literary communication. This revolution, though advantageous to the propagation of learning in each individual nation, was nevertheless a new obstacle to the general circulation of improvements in the literary republic at large; and well-wishers to the progress of human knowlege began to think of some means of evading the necessity of understanding so many different languages. Bishop Wilkins is well known to have composed the first treatise professedly on an universal written language; and it was a work of much labour and meditation, establishing those principles on which subsequent pasigraphists have founded their different systems. The celebrated *Freret** was of opinion that Bishop Wilkins would probably have succeeded in making his universal language generally adopted, if, in the practical part of his plan, he had bestowed greater attention on the natural filiation of ideas, than on the categorics of the peripatetic school. As it was, no person took the trouble of learning his language, except his friend Mr. Boyle.

After this prelate, a number of authors at different periods have offered pasigraphical plans, which have generally been soon forgotten by the public; though many of them contain useful information and pertinent observations concerning the nature of signs, and their mutual relation to the developement of ideas. A few years past, an attempt towards forming an universal written language was published at Paris; and the proposed system was adopted with eagerness by the Abbé *Sicard*, the famous instructor of the Dumb and Deaf; who promised to arrange the details of it so as to make it practicable. In the Appendix to the xxivth vol. of our Review, page 562, we gave an abstract of the system: but we have not been informed how far the Abbé executed what he then proposed in the *Magasin Encyclopedique.*

The plan of the Portuguese author of the treatise now before us differs, in some respects, from those of his predecessors in this career. Unlike them, he does not pretend to establish a system of characters expressing mere ideas, without any relation to the sounds of which the different nations make use to express them by words: but he proposes to take one of the most complete dictionaries in one of the learned languages, to mark with numbers each of the words which it contains, and then to affix the same numbers to words of synonimous signification in the dictionaries of other languages. It is clear that the same number would thus signify the same thing in all these dictionaries; and that, by writing these numbers instead of the words, the natives of the different countries which should agree to this proposal would understand each other without difficulty: but the too great simplicity of this plan gives it more the appearance of a diplomatic cypher than of a pasigraphic arrangement of signs. The author himself seems aware of this objection; and he is ready to enter the words into different classes, and to distinguish their modifications by peculiar numeric signs; in which case, we imagine, he will approach more or less to the system proposed by Mr. Northmore, in the early part of the last century. In either event, too many serious difficulties will render the execution of the plan an arduous task.

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* *Mem. de l'Acad. des Inscriptions*, vol. 9.

As Mr. DANTAS here proposes only the outline of his plan, we shall forbear to enter in farther details: but from the ingenuity and candor which are visible in his performance, we are inclined to believe that, at some future period, he will think of pasigraphy in general, and of his own plan, as *Rousseau* thought of the improved systems of notation in Music, and of his own theory on that subject [*]. There is little danger that any other language than the branches of the Teutonic, and of the Latin, (both of which may be called the Northern and Southern European languages,) will soon be rendered necessary by any important discoveries which may be announced in it. Even these European languages will probably be reduced by the diminution in number, and increase in size, which is rapidly taking place among European states: while the prevalence of translations will soon effect a natural level in each of the great nations, and diffuse among them every truly important discovery and useful idea.

This pamphlet seems to be written in a peculiar style, and with a turn of periods and phrases which we should have particularly noticed if it had been an English composition: but the author's own countrymen are the sole competent judges of its perfections or its faults;—and indeed the civility which he has manifested towards us, by quoting so freely from an article respecting pasigraphy, in a former volume of our Review, would give an ungracious appearance to any critical strictures from our pen.

ART. XVI. *Description des Plantes*, &c. i. e. A Description of new or little known plants, cultivated in the Garden of M. *Cels*; with Plates; published by E. P. VENTENAT, of the National Institute of France, and one of the Librarians at the Pantheon. No. I. Folio. Paris, 1800. Imported by de Boffe, London.

IT is gratifying to the lovers of learning, and of mankind, to observe the sciences emerge from the ruins and revolutionary horrors which threatened their destruction in France, and appear with an energy and vigour unparalleled in the former periods of French history. Natural history, in particular, is investigated with a degree of accuracy, of which old France did not afford very frequent instances; and it seems now to have acquired in that country a great number of votaries, even among the richer classes of society. This fact appears to be proved by the expensive and highly finished works of *Audebert* on the *Quadrumanes* and the *Colibris*, the history of succulent plants by *Candolle*, and the publication of *Ventenat* now before us.. Were we to judge from what happened in our own country, when similar unfortunate events took place in the seventeenth century, and from the present splendid resurrection of the sciences among our distracted neighbours, we might be led to think that such public calamities concentrate the love of study in literary minds, and impart it to many who otherwise would have passed their days in idleness and dissipation. As the storm vanishes, the fruits of this forced retirement and application burst forth in unexpected luxuriance.

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[*] See *Diction. de Musique.*

The number which we now announce contains magnificent delineations of ten new plants, and is to be followed by at least nineteen others. The plants here figured are two *Mimosæ*, the *Linifolia* and *Botrycephala*, the *Goodenia ovata*, the *Robinia viscosa*, *Gualtheria erecta*, *Ancistrum repens*, *Bossiœa heterophylla*, *Embothrium salicifolium*, *Iris fimbriata*, and *Melaleuca hypericifolia*. The drawings are made by *Redouté*, and they are engraved by *Sellier*; and few similar plates equal them in neatness and perfect execution. The descriptions by M. VENTENAT are truly botanical and satisfactory, possessing minuteness without confusion. If we were to mention any exceptions, we should perhaps venture to animadvert on the characters of the new genus *Bossiæa*, which belong to the papilionaceous tribe. The calyx and the fruit afford very good reasons for making this plant a new genus: but why condescend to notice so many different callosities as M. VENTENAT marks in the flower, in order to reckon them also as generic characters? We are aware that *Linné* employed a character of this nature in a genus of this same family: but certainly it was a deviation from his own sound principles.

The descriptions are preceded by two introductory discourses, one by M. VENTENAT, the other by M. *Cels*. In the first, we learn that the Garden of M. *Cels* has been enriched by the plants collected in North America (especially in Kentucky) by *Michaux*, and in the East by *Olivier* and *Bruguiere*; besides the supplies which a widely extended correspondence has procured for him from almost every quarter of the globe. An interesting enumeration is also given of many very scarce and curious plants now living in his garden; part of which, in all probability, will be published in the succeeding numbers of this work.—The short discourse of M. *Cels* is a simple but affecting narrative of the establishment and progress of his garden; affording a striking instance of what may be finally effected by industry, perseverance, and a decided partiality for any pursuit, even with the most scanty means, and when repressed by adversity.

We propose to give an account of the subsequent numbers as they reach us.

ART. XVII. *Annales de Chimie:* i. e. Chemical Annals. Nos. 104—107. 8vo. Paris. 1800.

THE first paper in these four numbers, that is not a republication, will be perused with considerable interest. It is a report *on the production of Sugar from a variety of the Beet,—the bette-rave.* The primary operation of the committee, from whom the report proceeds, was to digest, according to *Margraff*'s process, a determinate quantity of dry beet in rectified alcohol; and the proportion of sugar was found to be $\frac{1}{16}$. Instead of employing the boiled juice, (like M. *Achard,*) the committee judiciously operated on the crude juice; and thus was obtained a product of muscovado more considerable by one 4th part than the quantity derived from M. *Achard*'s process.

The grand question, towards which this investigation points, is the probable contingent success from the cultivation of the *bette-rave* for profit. A calculation, founded on a number of suppositions, gives the price of sugar procured, even according to M. *Achard*'s more wasteful and expensive process, at 18 sols French *per* pound. In the summary, it is added that the beet is capable of supplying, to a certain extent, the place of the sugar-cane; and that the price of the beet-sugar is not likely to exceed the price of colonial sugar *in ordinary times.* These conclusions are more favourable to the project than we expected; and under the same feeling, the committee assures us that they several times repeated their operations, before they would suffer themselves to be persuaded that the result was worthy of reliance.

Notice of the Presence of Malate of Lime in several Sorts of Plants. by M. VAUQUELIN.—In our last Appendix, p. 525. we mentioned this chemist's detection of this compound in the *house-leek.* He suspected that it would be equally found in all the *sedums;* and this suspicion, he here tells us, he has verified in the *sedum album, acre,* and *telephium,* in several species of *crassula,* in the *cotyledons,* and in many of the *mesembrianthemums.*

When the juice of a plant combines the properties of forming abundant precipitate with oxalate of ammonia, and with acetite of lead, (which latter is easily soluble in acetous acid,) we may be sure that it contains malate of lime.

The colours of the precipitate, which the juices of the different plants abovementioned (and others) yield with solution of acetite of lead, appeared in some instances beautiful and solid enough to deserve trial as paints. That which came from the *sedum acre* is yellow; from the *arum maculatum*, the most beautiful green.

On the Identity of the pyromucous, pyroligneous, and pyrotartarous Acids: By M. M. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.

This most important paper is introduced by observations on the multiplicity of the vegetable acids. The characters assigned to those mentioned in the title of the paper are there reviewed, and shewn to be indistinct. In the course of researches on the nature of cork, a red empyreumatic matter was obtained by distillation, which presented all the sensible characters of the pyroligneous acid. On rectifying this liquid, combining it with alkalis, and then recompounding the salt with weak sulphuric acid, the liquor obtained presented every character of true acetous acid. Hence we may presume that pyroligneous acid, however procured, was no other than the acetous; and that the two other empyreumatic acids were of the same nature.

Pyromucous acid from sugar, on being combined with lime and then treated with weak sulphuric acid, afforded a liquid with a very strong acetous smell; which combined with potash into acetite of potash, of a dark colour, but turning perfectly white on being filtered hot through powdered charcoal.

The other two acids presenting the same phænomena, it remained only to corroborate the analysis by synthesis; and this was easily effected by adding the empyreumatic oils of the respective bodies to acetous acid. It is to the solubility of these oils in acetous acid, that the odour so easily contracted and so tenaciously preserved by vinegar, is to be attributed.

In consequence of these experiments, we have attained to the knowlege of four modes of producing vinegar, viz. *destructive distillation*, yielding an empyreumatic acetous acid:—the *addition of strong acids to vegetable compounds*;—(the malic and oxalic acids are in this case formed at the same time, and the acetous acid is very weak from the water, which, as the writers say, is also formed;)—the *acetous fermentation*;—(this product is spirituous;) and *a peculiar fermentation*, independent of wine, to which animal liquids, and urine in particular, are subject. This acid is always accompanied by ammonia.

Extract of a Memoir by M. Van Mons, *on the* Rhus radicans; by M. B. La Grange.

We are told that M. *Bosc* ascertained the identity of the *Rh. rad.* and the *Rh. toxicodendron* during his residence in America, where it is called the *small-leaved poison oak*, and where its very touch is avoided. M. Van Mons attributes the deleterious effects of this vegetable to a gazeous substance, which exudes from the living plant;—the dried and even the withered leaves never occasioning any inconvenience. The sufferings experienced by those who break the stem, or warm themselves at a fire of this *poison-oak*, arise from the same emanation, or from the gazeous base condensed. In the sun, this plant yields almost pure oxygen gas; in the night, a mixture of hydrogen and carbone.

M. Van Mons concludes, from his experiments, that the predominating principle of the *Rh. radicans* is a very combustible hydrocarbonate. The use of it in palsy is imputed to M. *Du Fresnoy*. The *Rh. toxicodendron* has been represented in this country as applicable to the same purpose.

The remainder of this paper respects the best form for the administration of this remedy; and a cold extract is recommended:—but nothing is said to prove the superiority of any preparation to the dried powder.

M. Barruel renders justice, in the next paper, to the claims of M. *Guyton* respecting synoptic tables.

Chemical Observation by M. Cadet Gassicourt.—Oxalic acid formed accidentally in a mixture of sulfuric acid and rectified alcohol, left in a cool place for about 30 hours.

M. Von Crell *on the Decomposition of boracic Acid.*—This paper was first published in our *Philos. Transactions.* See Rev. Vol. xxx. N. S. p. 148.

Memoir on several new Properties of phosphorated hydrogen Gas. By M. Raymond.

Water fresh distilled dissolves a little less than 1-4th of its bulk. The solution is of the colour of roll brimstone; the taste is extremely bitter, vapid, and disagreeable; the smell is strong and unpleasant;—and it does not appear luminous in the dark. When left to stand in contact with the atmosphere, red oxyd of phosphorus is deposited, and hydrogen gas disengaged.

The hydro-phosphoreous liquor does not redden vegetable blues. It precipitates most metals from acids, in the state of metallic phosphures.

Treatise on Wines, by M. CHAPTAL; *extracted from the* 10*th Vol. of* Rogers's *Course of Agriculture.*

This re-published paper appears to us to be calculated rather to diffuse among a particular class of people, in a particular country, the knowledge of facts already ascertained, than to extend the science of chemistry. Its interest being therefore local, the propriety of its appearance in a work of the nature of the *Chemical Annals* may well be doubted. That our readers, however, may be enabled to form their own judgment, we shall extract one article: viz. the *Formation of Alcohol.*

The saccharine principle makes one of the essential characters of *must*. This principle disappears on fermentation, and is re-placed by the alcohol; a substance essential to wine. As the end of the spirituous fermentation is to produce alcohol by destroying the saccharine principle, the formation of the one is in proportion to the destruction of the other; and the alcohol will have been more abundant, according as the saccharine principle shall have been plentiful. Hence the quantity of alcohol may be increased at pleasure, by adding sugar to the must.

Hence the nature of the matter in fermentation varies every moment:—but, as there is in fermentation a continual progression, these changes may be followed, and be exhibited as invariable signs of the different states through which the fermenting material passes: 1. The must has a peculiar sweetish smell. 2. Its taste is more or less saccharine. 3. It is thicker, and its consistence varies as the grapes are more or less ripe, more or less saccharine.—The difference is from 75° to 40° by the areometer.—Scarcely does the fermentative process begin, when all the characters change:—it has a pungent smell, from the disengagement of carbonic acid:—the taste, though as yet very sweet, has a mixture of pungency:—the consistence lessens; —and the liquor, which had hitherto presented an uniform whole, shews flocculi, which become more and more insoluble.

By degrees, the saccharine taste grows fainter, and the vinous stronger; the liquor becomes sensibly thinner; the flocculi are more completely detached; the smell of alcohol is perceptible at a great distance; at length arrives a moment at which the saccharine principle is no longer sensible; and the smell and taste indicate alcohol only. However, all the saccharine principle is not destroyed. The farther decomposition of this substance is effected by the slow fermentation which takes place in the vessels; and when the fermentation is complete, no sugar any longer exists. The liquor has gained in fluidity, and exhibits merely alcohol mixed with a little extractive and colouring matter.

Such is the manner of a paper which occupies 130 pages in three numbers, and which is destined to occupy more space in the succeeding: but it should certainly have been published in a separate pamphlet, for the use of those whom it might concern.

Description of a Support applicable to Balances of all Dimensions: by M. Prony.—In the instrument here described and figured, this ingenious mechanic has furnished experimenters with a most commodious and by no means expensive mode of avoiding that tedious operation, balancing by hand.

Observations on the Constitution of different Kinds of Steel.—In this paper, which M. Gazerau calls a very brief abstract from his experiments, but none of which are particularized, he endeavours to shew that the *natural steel*, or steel from the first smelting, is an allay of pure iron with manganese, as well as with carbon.

In a letter, M. Abilgaard shortly states, on the faith of experiments not perhaps conducted with sufficient accuracy, that 148 grains of the charcoal of venous blood were required to detonate 480 grains of nitre, and *only* 119 *of arterial blood.*

Reclamation relative to the Invention of Parachutes.—M. Le Normand here claims the invention of the name and the thing, of which M. *Montgolfier* has hitherto enjoyed the honour. The Editors admit the claim.

Memoir on the Fabrication of the Wedgwood Pyrometric Pieces: by M. Gazerau.—There is now, or there was very lately, (if we be not misinformed,) at the manufactory itself at Etruria, a difficulty in finding clay fit for these pieces. M. Gazerau is led by his numerous researches to prescribe the use of a clay containing at least 34 parts in 100 of alumine; and the addition of siliceous earth enough to render the pieces at least as refractory as those of Wedgwood.

Analysis of a stone named Gadolinite, *with an Account of some of the Properties of the new Earth which it contains:* by M. Vauquelin.

It is known to chemists that, about six years ago, M. *Gadolin* discovered the earth here in question; and that M. *Ekeberg* has since employed himself in analysing the Swedish mineral which affords it. To the earth itself he gave the name of Yttria, from Ytterby, the place at which the mineral is obtained.

M. Vauquelin finds the new earth united in the Gadolinite to silex, oxydated iron, oxyd of manganese, and lime. He separated it in two different ways; of which it will be sufficient for us to report one. One hundred parts of gadolinite being dissolved in diluted nitrous acid, he then evaporated; applying a brisk heat at last to effect the complete decomposition of the nitrate of iron. On redissolution in water, he obtained the peculiar earth dissolved, the silex and iron being detached. To separate the latter of these from the former, the mixture is boiled in rather strong marine acid; and the iron is disunited by filtration. Ammonia is then added to the nitrous solution; this leaves the lime, and separates the new earth with the manganese. These latter are then dissolved a third time; and a solution of hydro-sulfure of potash is gradually added, to separate only the metallic parts.

This earth differs from alumine and glucine in not being soluble in caustic fixed alkali. It combines rapidly, and with heat, with sulfuric acid. The salt has an astringent taste at first, and afterward a sweet flavour like a salt of lead; which is distinguishable from that of salt of glucine.—Yttria forms deliquescent salts with nitrous and muriatic acids.—Prussiate of potash, chrystallized, and re-dissolved in water, causes a white grainy deposition in solutions of this earth in acids; which is not the case with solutions of glucine.

Analysis of the mineral Waters of Tongres: By M. PAYSSÉ.—These waters are remarkable for the quantity of carbonate of manganese which they contain.

M. H. VAN MONS's *Critical Examination of Wigleb's Commentary on the Conversion of Steam into Air; translated from the Latin by M.* LE CLERC.

The numerous papers on the effect of transmitting steam through red hot tubes, which have been published, have appeared to us to prove so clearly that (in this way at least) water is not convertible into air, but that the air obtained arises from the porosity of the vessels, or from other sources of error, that we did not look for another discussion of the old arguments.

Analysis of the Honey-stone: By M. VAUQUELIN.

To obtain the acid, discovered by M M. *Abich* and *Lampadius* to exist in this stone, it was digested with carbonate of potash, and then separated by sulphuric acid. M. VAUQUELIN, confessing indeed that his experiments are not satisfactory to himself, declares that he has only observed the following points of difference between the acid here in question and the oxalic.—The precipitate which the acid of the honey-stone occasions in solution of sulfate of lime, is longer in appearing, and has a powdery instead of a chrystalline appearance. It tastes less of acid than the acidulous oxalate of potash:—but the author observes, that this might depend on his not adding nitrous acid enough to deprive the acid of the honey-stone of all the alkali with which it was in combination. It swells rather more on the application of heat, than the acidulous oxalate of potash does.

In a note, M. VAUQUELIN apprizes us that, in adding acid of honey-stone, combined with a little alkali, to a solution of pure sulfate of alumine, and acidulous oxalate of potash to another portion of solution of sulfate of alumine, there took place instantaneously a flocculent deposition in the former, and none in the latter; a fact which points to a difference between the acids, and induces him to suspend his judgment.

Extract of a Letter from Prof. WURZER *to M. Van Mons.*

The writer of this letter announces the discovery of a new fixed alkali by Dr. *Hahnemann*, to which that gentleman gives the name of alkali *pneum*: from its property of swelling, in the application of heat, to twenty times its bulk. This alkali neither effloresces nor deliquesces in the atmosphere. At 300° (qu?) of Fahrenheit, it dissolves in half its weight of water, and almost fuses in its own water of chrystallization. At 65° Fahrenheit, 140 parts require for their solution 500 parts of water. It is insoluble in alcohol.—Among other properties, it is mentioned that the lime, precipitated by this alkali from muriate of lime, dissolves on being put immediately, and before it is dry, into distilled water:—but what does this mean? Does not all lime dissolve in distilled water?—or does Dr H. only intend to assert that lime under the above circumstances is much more soluble?

This alkali precipitates oxygenated muriate of mercury, of a bright red. It is said to form, with carbonic acid, a light earthy salt: but its combination with this acid presents great difficulties, because it suffers it to escape at the ordinary temperature of the air.

Nothing is said respecting the source from which the alkali *pneum* is derived. For this information, and for its applicability to the arts, which may be expected to exist in a much greater degree than in most of the lately discovered bodies, we must be contented to wait. A little time, probably, will enable us to decide whether we have really to acknowlege ourselves indebted to Dr. HAHNEMANN for a discovery equally curious and valuable; or whether he has deceived himself, and mocked us with delusive hope.

Art. XVIII. M. Meusel's *Guide to the History of Literature*, &c.

[*Article continued from the last Appendix, p.* 465—475.]

The second volume of this laborious work commences with the 3d Section or Period.— *From the death of Augustus to the irruption of the Goths into Italy*; 396 years.

The *general Diffusion of Knowlege*, during this period, was not considerable. Although the princes of the race of Augustus were the friends of literature, and were in some degree learned themselves, yet learning did not flourish, and taste perceptibly decayed. Free genius was indulged at the risk of life. Eloquence was abandoned to pedants, philosophy to sophists, education to slaves;—and all were at the nod of tyrants. From Quintilian and Petronius, we learn that the period already felt its debility approaching; and in less than two hundred years, its want of vigour was apparent. The causes of this were, (besides the tramels placed by despotism on the freedom of thinking and writing,) long and almost continual wars, prevailing luxury and effeminacy, the abuse of philosophy or rather of its name, the rage for magic, for divination, and for theatrical spectacles; and above all, slight and superficial education. To this end, also, the propagation of Christianity in some measure contributed; not from its own nature, but from the circumstances then existing *.

The chief *Promoters of Learning*, during this period, were the Emperors Vespasian, Trajan, Hadrian, Marcus Aurelius, Alex. Severus, Constantine 1st, and Julian.

The *Writers whose general influence, with respect to Literature, was the greatest*, were Seneca, the younger Pliny, Plutarch, Lucian, Origen, and Eusebius.

Seats of Learning. The Jews had still schools in Judea, until the destruction of Jerusalem; particularly at Bethhoron, Jerunia, and Tiberias. They had also seminaries at Nahardea, Sora, and Pumheditha.—In the heathen schools of Egypt, the chief of which was at Alexandria, were taught the Greek philosophy, mathematics, jurisprudence, medicine, magic, and astrology.—In Greece, the schools of Athens still flourished; and at Rome and in Italy, they were first endowed from the public treasury by Vespasian. The principal school, after that of Rome, was at Milan.—In France, that of Marseilles was the most reputable.—The Christians had schools at Athens, at Antioch, at Nicomedia, at Nicopolis, and at Alexandria.

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* The present author is here more circumspect, and, in our opinion, more just than Gibbon. *R.*

The principal *Libraries* were that of Alexandria, in a great measure destroyed by Christian fanaticism;—that of Constantinople, founded by Constantius, and so greatly enriched by Julian that at length it contained 120,000 volumes;—that of Antioch;—that of Rome called *Ædes Tiberiana*;—and the *Capitolini*, which, under the younger Gordian, contained 62,000 volumes.

The *State of Philology*, during this period, is thus described: From the schools of the Jews issued, piece meal, the *Masora*, the *Talmuds*, and the *Cabbala*. The most renowned scholars of that nation were Akiba, Simeon-ben-Jochai, (author of the book called *Sohar*,) and R. Nathan of Babylon.—The principal Greek philologists were Hephæstion of Alexandria, whose *Enchiridion* was published by *Paw* in 1726;—Julius Pollux, author of the *Onomasticon*, published by *Lederlin* in 2 vols. folio in 1706;—Phrynicus of Bethinia, whose *Eclogues* of Attic nouns and verbs were published by *Paw* in 4°. 1739;—Ælius Moeris, whose Attic *Lexicon* was published by Pierson, together with the *Philæterus* of Ælius Herodianus, in 8°. 1759.—Hesychius of Alexandria, whose excellent glossary was most splendidly edited by *Alberti* and *Ruhnkenius* in 1746-1766; to which a very valuable supplement from a MS. in the Library of St. Mark at Venice was given by *Schow* in 8°. 1792;—Timæus, whose *Lexicon* of the words peculiar to Plato was edited by *Ruhnkenius* in 1789;—Valerius Harpocration of Alexandria, whose *Lexicon* of the ten Athenian Orators was published by Gronovius in 1696;—and Ammonius, whose *Greek Synonyma* were published, with *Valckenar*'s notes, by C. F. *Ammon*, in 8°. 1787.

Among the Latins, we find Ælius Donatus, who lived at Rome about the middle of the 4th century, and was St. Jerom's master; and to whom he falsely ascribed *Commentaries* on Virgil and Terence;—Asconius Pedianus, who wrote a Commentary on some of Cicero's Orations, of which we have a few estimable fragments;—R. Fannius Palæmon, author of a sort of Grammar;—M. Valerius Probus, author of *Grammatical Institutes*, and of notes on Terence and Virgil;—Censorinus, whose tract *De die natali*, with a perpetual Commentary by *Lindenbrog*, was edited by *Havercamp* in 1743;—Nonius Marcellus, author of a work *De proprietate sermonum*;—and F. M. Theodorus, whose work *On the quantity of Syllables* was published by *Heusinger*, in 1766.

The chief *Historians* of this period were, in Greek, Flavius Josephus; the best editions of whose works are that of *Havercamp* in 2 vol. fol. 1726; and that of *Oberthür* in 3 vol. 8°. 1785;—Plutarch; of whose works the last complete edition is that of

Reiske in 12 vol. 8°. 1782;—Arrian, last edition by *F. Schmieder* in 8°. 1798;—Appian, last edition by J. *Schweighaeuser*, 3 vol. 8°. 1785;—Pausanias, last edition by J. F. *Facius*, 4 vol. large 8°. 1797;—Cl. Ælian, last edition by *Lehuert* in 8°. 1793;—Dio Cassius, last edition by *Reimarus*, 2 vol. fol. 1752: some inedited fragments of the author were published by *Morellius* in 1798;—Herodian, last edition by T. G. *Irmisch*, 3 vol. 8°. 1792.

The Latin Historians are Velleius Paterculus, last edition by D. *Ruhnken*, 2 vol. 8°. 1779;—Valerius Maximus, last edition by J. *Kapp*, 8°. 1782;—C. Corn. Tacitus, last edition that of Deux-ponts, 4 vol. 8°. 1780;—Suetonius, last edition by *Ernesti*, 8°. 1775;—Q. Curtius, last edition by *D. J. T. Cunze* in 8°. 1795;—L. Æn. Florus, last edition by *Fischer*, 8°. 1760;—Justin, the abridger of Trogus Pompeius, last edition by *Fischer* 8°. 1757;—A. Gellius, last edition by *Otho*, 8°. 1762.—The six writers *Historiæ Augustæ;* namely Spartian, Jul. Capitolinus, Lampridius, Vulc. Gallicanus, Treb. Pallio, and Flav. Vopiscus; who were published together, with the notes of *Casaubon*, *Salmasius*, and *Gruter*, in 2 vol. 8°. 1671, and re-published by J. P. *Schmidt* in 1771;—Sext. Aur. Victor, last edition by J. F. *Gruner*, 8°. 1787;—Eutropius, last edition by *Gruner*, 8°. 1768.—Ammianus Marcellinus, last edition by *A. W. Ernesti*, large 8vo. 1773.—On *Chronology*, we have Ptolemy, edited at London in 4°. 1620; and Julius Africanus, of whom some fragments have been preserved by Eusebius.—On *Geography*, we have Strabo; of whom the last edition was published by *Siebenkees* and *Tzsuche* in 2 vols. 8°. 1798;—Arrian, whose *Peripius Ponti Euxini*, and *Periplus maris Erythræi*, were published in the first vol. of Hudson's Collection;—Ptolemy, edited by *Mercator* in 1605, and by *Bertius* in 1619, both editions in fol.;—Pomponius Mela, last edition by *Kapp*, 8°. 1781;—C. Plinius secundus, last edition by *Frauzius*, 10 vols. large 8°. 1791. To these may be added the *Itinerarium Antonini Augusti*, published by *Wesseling* in 4°. 1735.

Of the *Mathematical Works* of this period, the author mentions the *Sphærics* of Menelaus; Ptolemy's Μεγαλη συνταξις, Serenus *on the Cylinder*; Philo *on curve lines*; Demetrius on the same subject; Nichomacus's *Introduction to Arithmetic;* of which the *Arithmetic* of *Boetius* is only a free translation; thirteen books on Arithmetic by Diophantus of Alexandria, of which only six are extant; and a book *on Polygons* by the same author. Both works were published together in Greek and Latin, with the Commentaries of *Bachet* and the Observations of *Fermat*, &c. at Thoulouse in fol. 1670. In the former of these works, we discover the first traces of the analytic method; now denominated *Algebra.*—Of the mathematical works of Pappus, some fragments have been published by *Wallis, Meibomius,* and *Condamine.*—Of Theon of Alexandria, there remain a recension of Euclid's Elements, Scholia on Aratus, and a Commentary on the *Syntaxis* of Ptolemy. Theon's daughter, Hypatia, wrote observations on Apollonius and Diophantus, and constructed astronomical tables: but her works are lost.—On Tactics, Onosander, a Platonist, wrote a work called *Strategicology,* which was published, with a French translation, at Nuremberg, in fol. 1762.—The *Stratagemata* of Frontinus, in four books, were published by *Oudendorp* in 8°. 1779; and again much improved by *Wiegman* in 1798.

State of the Philosophical Sciences. The stoic philosophy was cultivated by Athenodorus, Q. Sextius, A. Cornutus, Musonius Rufus, and Epictetus, whose *Enchiridion* was latterly published by *C. G. Heyne* in 8°. 1776, and, together with Cebes's Table, by *Schweighauser* 8°. 1798.—Simplicius, a philosopher of Alexandria in the 6th century, wrote a Greek Commentary on the *Enchiridion,* published by Heinsius in 1640; and the work of M. Aurel. Antoninus *De Rebus suis,* published by Gataker at Cambridge in 1652, and at London by Stanhope in 1707, belongs to the same class.

The chief of the Peripatetic philosophers, during this period, was Andronicus of Rhodes, whose paraphrase on Aristotle's Ethics was published by *Heinsius* in 4°. 1607.—Alexander Aphrodisius, and Themistius, (of whom in another place) were also learned Peripatetics.

Of the school of Pythagoras, were Apollonius Tyaneus, and Philostratus.

The Platonic philosophy was cultivated by the Christian writers, and blended with the doctrines of Christianity. Justin Martyr, Tatian, Theophilus of Antioch, Clement of Alexandria, Origen, &c. were all Platonists; as also, among the Heathens, were Galen, Albinus, Theon of Smyrna, Taurus, Numenius, Favorinus, Plutarch, Apuleius, Dio Chrysostom, M. Tyrius, and Lucian. Philo Judæus was likewise a Platonist.

The disciples of Epicurus were Celsus, (the great adversary of the Christians,) Diogenes Laertius, and Sextus Empiricus the Pyrrhonist: the best edition of whose works is that of Fabricius, revised and improved by Mund. 1796.

Among the Jews, Philosophy was chiefly of the Cabalistic kind: concerning which our author refers to *De la Nauze's Remarques sur l'antiquité et l'origine de la Cabale,* in the 9th vol. of *Mémoires de l'Académie des Inscriptions;* and to *Kleuker*-

Ueber die Natur und den ursprung der Emanationslehre bey den Kabbalisten, published at Riga in 1786.

Towards the end of the second century, a new sect of Platonists arose, called the *Eclectics;* of whom the principal were Amonius Saccas, Longinus, Herinnius, Origen, Plotinus, Jamblichus, &c.

Among the Romans, Philosophy had few cultivators: the chief of them was Seneca; the last edition of whose works was by *E. Ruhkof* in 8vo. 1798.

State of the Fine Arts and Sciences; and first of *Poetry*; which, as well as Oratory, felt an extraordinary decay. The only Greek poet here noticed by the author is Oppian; whose works were published in Greek and Latin by *Schneider* in 8vo. 1776; and the *Cynogetics*, revised in 4 MSS. by *De Ballu*, in 4to. and 8vo. 1786.—Here M. Meusel introduces Lucian as a prose-poet, and recommends the edition of *Reitz*, 4 vols. in 4to. 1743; re-published at Deux-ponts in 10 vols. 8vo. 1793.—Achilles Tatius, a Christian bishop, wrote the first Romance extant called *Clitophon and Leucippe*, about the middle of the third century; and Heliodorus, somewhat more than a century afterward, wrote his *Theagenes and Charclea:* but the best of those erotic writers was Longus, whose *Daphnis and Chloe* was correctly edited by *Villoison* in 1778.—The Anthia and Abrocomus of Xenophon of Ephesus was republished, from the old edition of Cochi, at London in 1726; and the *Chareas* and *Callirhoe* of Chariton was published by *D'Arvilius* at Amsterdam in 1783. All these were Greek poets or romancers.

The Latins were, Cæsar Germanicus, who translated, in a free manner, the *Phænomena* and *Prognostica* of Aratus; published by *Schwartz* in 1715;—Phedrus, the freedman of Augustus, who put the fables of Æsop into elegant Iambics; the last edition by *Schwabe*, 1781;—Petronius Arbiter, whose *Satyricon* was lastly published by *Gottleb*, at Leipsic, in 1781;—Seneca, whose Tragedies were published by *Shroeder* in 1794;—Persius, whose satires, with a German version and illustrations by *Fülleborn*, were published at Zulichau in 1794;—Lucan, best edition by *Burmann* 1740 *;—The *Argonauts* of Val. Flaccus were in 1724 published by *Burmann*; and republished by *Harles* (*cum notis variorum*) in 1781;—the works of P. Statius, of which the most accurate edition is that of *Veenbusen* in 8vo. 1671;—Martial, best edition by *Jan. Gruter*, 1619;—C. Silius Italicus, last edition by *Ruperti*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1798;—Juvenal, best edition that of *Henninius*, in 4to.

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* It appears that M. Meusel had not seen the splendid Paris edition of Lucan.

1695;—Apuleius, best edition by *Ruhnkenius*, 1786;—Olympius Nemesianus; whose *Cynogeticum* was published at London in 1699; and more latterly at the Hague among the Poets *rei venationis* 1728;—the eclogues of T. Julius Calpurnius were published in *Wernsdorf*'s Minor Latin Poets;—Ausonius, best edition that of *Souchay* at Paris, 1730;—Claudian, best editions that of *Gesner*, 8vo. 1759, and that of *P. Burmann* in 4to. 1760.

In this same period, appeared some Arabic bards, the chief of whom was Abu Tamar; some of whose pieces, with other fragments of Asiatic poetry, have been published by *Schultens*, *Reiske*, and *Sir Wm. Jones*.—Here Professor MEUSEL places Ossian as an antient Caledonian Poet; whose supposed works, from M'Pherson's English version, have been translated into most European languages: into German by *Wittenberg*; into Italian verse by *Cesarotti*: into French by *Le Tourneur*; and into Latin by *M'Farlan.*

The Orators and Rhetoricians of this period were—Dio Chrysostom, best edition by *Reiske*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1784;—*Aristides*, best edition that of Jebb in 4to. 1722;—Maximus Tyrius, best edition by *Reiske*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1774;—Philostratus the elder, and Philostratus the younger, best edition by *Olearius* in folio, 1709;—Athenæus, best edition by *Schaefer*, 8vo. 1789.;—Libanius, best edition by *Reiske*, 1797;—Julian, best edition that of *Heusinger* at Erlangen, 4to. 1785;—Himerius, best edition by *Wernsdorf*, 1790;—Themistius Euphrades, best edition of his Orations by *Petavius* and *Harduin*, 1684.—Hermogenes, Longinus, Alciphron, Aphthonius, Theon, Aristenetus, Demetrius Phalereus, the younger Pliny, Seneca, Quintilian, and Symmachus, were rather Rhetoricians than Orators.

On *Statistics*, M. MEUSEL gives the names of only three writers; Columella, Æmilianus, and Apicius.

In the knowlege of *Natural History*, the following were most renowned; Apollonius Discolus of Alexandria, Phlegon, Ælian, and Seneca.

Medical Science was supported by Galen, Themison, Soranus, and Cælius Aurelianus.—Rufus of Ephesus and Morinnus wrote on Anatomy.—On the *Materia Medica*, Menecrates, Damocrates, Philo of Tarsus, Pharmacion, Scribonius Largus, Andromachus, who invented the Theriaca; and, above all, Dioscorides: best edition by *Sarraceni*, at Francfort, folio, 1598.

Towards the end of the first year of this period, a division took place among the physicians, which gave rise to two sects, the *Pneumatists*, and the *Eclectics*. Of the former, the most renowned was Athenaeus, a Cilician, who practised with celebrity at Rome: of the latter, Agathias of Sparta, and Archegenes of Apamæa, who practised at Rome in the reign of Trajan. At the same time, Aristæus seems to have flourished; who was the most exact observer, after Hippocrates, of all the antient physicians. He wrote in Greek.

The principal *Jurists* of this period were Antistius Labeo, Sempronius Proculus, Ateius Capito Masurius Sabinus, and Salvius Julianus; which last made a collection of the preceding Prætorial Edicts, under the title of *Edictum perpetuum*; first published at Paris in 1597. It became a text-book to future Jurists, who commented on it; of whom the most remarkable were Sextus Pomponius, Æmilius Papinianus, Ulpian, Julius Paulus, and Herennius Modestinus. The fragments of these may be seen in Labitt's *Index Legum omnium quæ in Pandectis continentur*, published at Paris in 1557.

Under Constantine the Great, Gregorius collected the Cæsarean Rescripts from Hadrian to Dioclesian: this collection is called *Codex Gregorianus*, and was published in *Schultens's Jurisprudentia Ant. Justitiæ.*—It was followed by *Codex Hermogenianus;* which is a supplement to the *Codex Gregorianus.* See *Pohl-De Codicibus Greg. et Herm.* published at Leipsic 1774.

State of *Theology*. The growing influence of Christianity gave a new turn to this branch of knowlege. The great founder of this religion left no writings himself: his pretended letter to Abgarus being an evident forgery. The most antient historical Christian writers are the four Evangelists; and the other sacred writers are James, Peter, Paul, Jude, and John. Towards the end of the first year of this period, their writings had been collected, and were now in the hands of most Christians. This collection was called *the New Testament*, or Covenant: the last edition of which is that of *Griesbach*, first published in 1777, and lately re-published with great improvements.

On the progress of the Christian religion, these books, as well as the books of what was then called the *Old Testament*, were translated into various languages, and diffused all over the Roman empire. The Christian writers, commonly called the Church-fathers, who wrote in this period, were Justin Martyr, best edition by *Maran*, Paris, 1742;—Irenæus, best edition by *Massuet*, Paris, 1710;—Clement of Alexandria, best edition by *Potter*, Oxon. 1715; Athanagoras, best edition by *Maran*, with the works of Justin;—Origen, best edition by *De la Rue*, Paris, 1759;—Athanasius, best edition by *Montfaucon*; re-printed with improvements and an additional volume at Padua in 1774, 4 vols. folio;—Basil, best edition by *Garnier*, Paris, 1730;—Gregory of Nazianzen, best edition by *Billius*, Paris, 1630. (A new edition was planned, and partly executed, by the benedictines of St. Maur, 1st vol. published at Paris, 1778.)—John Chrysostom, best edition by *Montfaucon*, 13 vols. folio: re-printed at Venice in 1780 in 14 vols.—All these were Greeks.—The Latin Fathers were—Tertullian, best edition by *Semler*, 6 vols. 8vo. 1776;—Minucius Felix, best edition by *Lindner*, 8vo. 1760;—Cyprian, best edition by *Maran*, Paris, 1726;—Arnobius, best edition by *Heraldus*, Leyden, 4to. 1651;—Lactantius, called the Christian Cicero, best edition by *Du Fresnoy*, Paris, 2 vols. 4to. 1757.—Ambrose, best edition by the Paris Benedictines, 2 vols. folio, 1690;—Austin, best edition also by the Paris Benedictines, 11 vols. folio, 1700;—Jerom, the most learned of all the Fathers, best edition also by the Paris Benedictines, 5 vols. folio, 1706.

The author reserves for Eusebius of Cæsarea a distinguished place in his list, and gives a particular account of all his writings: of which it is much to be lamented that no complete edition has yet been published.—Here ends M. MEUSEL's *Third Period*. The remaining periods we reserve for another Article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XIX. *Hygrologie, ou Exposé Chimico-physiologique*, &c. i.e. Hygrology, or a Chemico-physiological Explanation of the Fluids contained in the Human Body. By JOSEPH JAMES PLENCK. Translated from the Latin by *Felix Pitt*, Student of Medicine. 8vo. pp. 170. Paris. 1800. Imported by Dulau and Co. London. Price 3s.

As we have already given some account of the English translation of this work, by Dr. Hooper*, we have only to announce this French Version, and to say that it is well performed. Translations of *Plenck*'s other works are promised by Mr. *Pitt*. The bearer of a name so inauspicious in France must have had peculiar good fortune in escaping proscription.

☞ An accident having interrupted the continuation of our account of the *Memoirs of the National Institute, at Paris*, we propose to renew it in an early number of the Review.

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* M. R. New Series, Vol. xxx. p. 232.

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